

MICHAELIS and GRIM

The

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in the
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The STUDENT TEACHER
in the ELEMENTARY SCHOOL





The STUDENT TEACHER in the ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

by

JOHN U. MICHAELIS *Professor of Education, University of California, Berkeley* • PAUL R. GRIM *Director of Laboratory Experiences, University of Minnesota*

in collaboration with

MARILYN ANDERSON *Supervisor of Elementary Student Teaching, University of California, Berkeley* • GLENN E. BARNETT *Associate Professor of Education and Director of University Elementary School, University of California, Berkeley* • NAOMI C. CHASE *Coordinator of Elementary Student Teaching, University of Minnesota* • ENOCH DUMAS *Associate Director of Supervised Teaching, University of California, Berkeley* • WILBUR H. DUTTON *Associate Director of Teacher Training, University of California, Los Angeles* • ROBERT GRIFFIN *Supervisor of Elementary Student Teaching, University of California, Berkeley* • JOHN A. HOCKETT, *Professor of Education and Associate Director of Teacher Training, University of California, Los Angeles* • ANNE F. MERRILL *Supervisor of Elementary Student Teaching, University of California, Berkeley* • ROBERT W. RICHEY *Associate Professor of Education and Director of Student Teaching in Elementary Schools, Indiana University* • AL TUDYMAN *Director of Special Education, Oakland Public School* • ROSALIE V. ZARI *Supervisor of Elementary Student Teaching, University of California, Berkeley*

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To

*Supervising teachers throughout our land
in recognition of the key role
they play in preparing
teachers for the
children of
America*



Preface

STUDENT TEACHING is the busiest and most profitable experience in a student's program. Information, understandings, techniques, and points of view developed in preceding professional experiences must be brought to bear upon instructional problems in a down-to-earth, realistic manner. The pupils and the teaching situation must be studied. Plans must be made and carried out with reference to needs of children, purposes of education, conditions in the community, and a moving calendar of events that taxes one's endurance and ingenuity. Materials must be discovered, reviewed, incorporated into plans, and utilized in accordance with sound guide-lines. In some instances, materials must be prepared on the spot to meet special needs. Fast learners, slow learners, and children with various handicaps must be considered both as individuals and as members of groups. Child-study techniques, group processes, and techniques of evaluation are of importance from the very first day of student teaching and are intimately related to planning and teaching; in fact, they are a basic, integral part of teaching.

Specific help and information are needed to carry out all these tasks. It is hoped that this book will supply that help and information. Included in it are practical suggestions, techniques, and principles that have proved to be helpful to student teachers in both rural and city schools. The contents have been organized to facilitate use of the book during student teaching. Charts, check lists, pictures, and summary lists of effective procedures have been used extensively to convey practical information in a concise form. The intent of the authors is to make essential

information available in a handy and usable form so that student teachers will be free to spend as much time as possible in actual work with children.

The specific suggestions must not be adopted and applied in a rule-of-thumb manner, however. Rather, they should be used flexibly, and modified as needed. Ideally, they will be used creatively, and new and better ways of meeting teaching problems will be discovered by student teachers and supervising teachers as they work together with a given group of children.

All this emphasis upon practical techniques does not mean that the book does not have a philosophical basis. It does. And this philosophy is brought out not only in the text, but in the charts and pictures as well. Philosophy and practice must be tied together, and the focus of both must be the actual problems that arise in teaching children.

The authors recognize that student teaching is now viewed as a laboratory experience involving the total school program and community relationships. Student teaching is one basic element in the complete program of teacher education that leads to effective teaching in service. Hence, it is necessary to consider in-service growth and related problems in a systematic manner.

Many people have made this book possible. Student teachers and supervising teachers have contributed countless ideas. Pictures, charts, and check lists have been obtained from many different school systems. The following individuals made specific contributions, which are gratefully acknowledged: Carl Carter and Ruby Hill, Oakland Public Schools; George Grimes, Ray Pollich, and Ida Coleman, Los Angeles Public Schools; Francis Drag, San Diego County Schools; William Woolworth, Charles Reed, Eugene Baker, Milton Gordon, Albany Public Schools, California; Clinton Conrad and Larry Foster, University of California, Berkeley; and Alyce Burkett, Mary Lowden, Edith Moody, and Elodie Smith, Richmond Public School, California.

Berkeley, California
Minneapolis, Minnesota

John U. Michaelis
Paul R. Grim

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The STUDENT TEACHER
in the ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

1

Your Beginning as a Student Teacher

STUDENT TEACHING is an opportunity to gain practical teaching experience under expert supervision. It gives you a chance to learn about the actual work of the teacher in the classroom, on the playground, in the lunch room, and in special activities. It enables you to gain insight into the teacher's relations with other school workers. It is a laboratory experience in which you, the student teacher, can plan and develop learning experiences with children and secure expert help while you are doing it. It permits you to focus the ideas you have secured in preceding courses upon actual school problems as you work with elementary-school children.

A clear understanding of the role of student teaching will help you to get the most out of your experience. Discuss the aspects of teaching competence presented below with your supervising teacher and with the supervisor from your collegiate institution.¹ Plan to undertake experiences during your student-teaching assignment that will help you achieve all the competencies listed. Remember that the ideas you gain while you are a student teacher will be "like money in the bank" when you are on your own as a full-time teacher.

¹ *Supervising teacher* refers to the classroom teacher in whose room you are doing student teaching. *Supervisor* refers to the individual from your college or university who supervises your work; the supervisor is sometimes referred to as a coordinator or director.

TEACHING COMPETENCE

The controlling purpose of student teaching is to enable you to develop a high level of teaching competence. You have learned many things about the purposes of education, how children learn, what to teach, and methods to use in teaching. All



San Diego

Competent teachers select materials and organize work groups with reference to clear purposes.

this learning must be tied down and put to use in a practical manner. The only way to do it is actually to work with children in varied situations and to make and carry out specific teaching plans. Let us consider selected aspects of teaching competence more specifically by discussing certain things that competent teachers actually do.

Have Clear Purposes. Competent teachers have clear purposes in mind for each educational experience. Persistent questions at each stage of planning, teaching, guidance, and evaluation are: What is the purpose? Why do this? What objective is to be

achieved? The particular purpose may be to improve vocabulary development, to secure information for use in a play, to increase appreciation of a minority group, to improve discussion skills, to develop a wholesome attitude toward others, to improve reading comprehension, or to enjoy a recording. Once

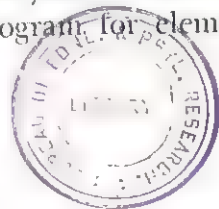


Englewood, Colorado

Competent teachers study pupils to discover needs, interests, capabilities, home backgrounds.

you have the purpose clearly in mind, you can develop specific plans to achieve it.

A practical clarification of the purposes of education is a significant outcome of student teaching. Over-all plans for the term, plans for units of work, and daily plans for a particular experience call for a careful consideration of purposes. "Know where you are going before you start" is a guide-line for teaching that you will consider intensively as you work with your supervising teacher in developing a program for elementary-school pupils.



Study the Pupils. Competent teachers base learning experiences upon the studied needs, abilities, and interests of the pupils with whom they are working. Student teaching provides an opportunity to study a particular group of students and the individuals in the group. Such devices as anecdotal records, tests,



Los Angeles

Children have many different needs that should be met in the school program.

and interest questionnaires can be employed and interpreted, and the results can be put to use in planning. Such a procedure enables you to select specific procedures and materials to meet individual differences, thus giving you increased skill in dealing with a major problem of teaching—individualization of instruction. Then you will be able to move on and develop more effective ways of working with typical and exceptional children, because you will understand the group and the individuals in it. Planning and evaluation will be more effective, because you

will know something about individual levels of development, needs, and potentialities.

Meet Children's Needs. Once children's needs are understood, competent teachers take steps to meet them. Security is provided in part through a congenial classroom atmosphere, sincere regard for each child, mutual respect, and work adjusted to the maturity of each child. Physical needs may be met by providing experiences that require physical activity, and by providing a rhythm of work, rest, and play in the daily program. Social needs may be met through cooperative group work, clubs, and group sharing guided by real concern for each other's well-being. Emotional needs are met by art, music, and creative expression that emerges from the children's own experiences. Individual guidance is provided as special problems and conflicts arise. Needs to develop functional skills, wholesome attitudes, and democratic citizenship are met in the daily program through careful pre-planning by the teacher and group planning by the children.

Know the Community. Competent teachers base their instruction on needs and conditions in the community. A knowledge of the community is essential to an adequate understanding of the children in your class. A survey of educational resources in the community will indicate field trips, resource persons, library facilities, radio programs, and other instructional materials that can be used in the program. Adaptation of instruction to conditions in the community can be made with special reference to safety problems, health needs, recreational facilities, public-service agencies, industries, home conditions, delinquency, language difficulties, and inter-cultural problems. Your supervising teacher will already have made many adaptations and will assist you in carrying through on them. The more rapidly you become acquainted with the community around your school, the more effectively you will grow in your ability to adapt instruction to conditions in the community.

Make Effective Plans. Skill in planning is a major factor in teaching competence, inasmuch as good teaching and good planning go hand-in-hand. Hence a first task in student teaching is over-all planning for the term's work so that attention may be given to all phases of the program. A second step is the planning

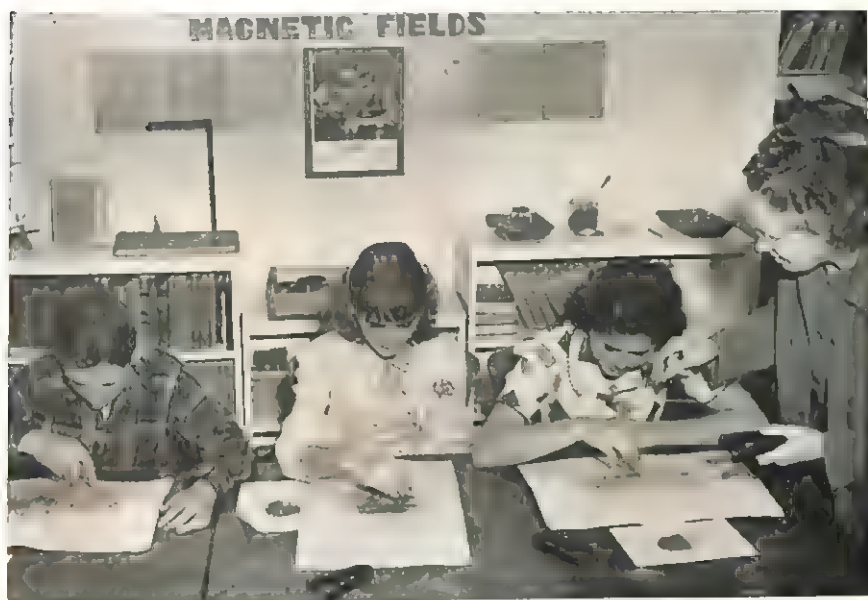


Berkeley

Well-made plans assure rich experiences for pupils and increase the confidence of the teacher.

of units that cover the major topics or parts of the work for a given term. Daily planning is a third aspect whereby specific, detailed procedures are outlined to assure the achievement of specific purposes. All phases of planning must, of course, be based on clearly stated purposes, an understanding of children, knowledge of the community, and acquaintance with available instructional resources. The course of study contains many suggestions, and your supervising teacher and supervisor will make others.

Make Content Meaningful. Competent teachers make their teaching meaningful to children. It is quite a jump from the collegiate level of instruction to the elementary school. The content backgrounds that competent teachers possess are re-oriented and addressed specifically to the problems, level of thinking, and



Los Angeles

Provide concrete materials to make content meaningful.

learning capacities of children. This requires careful attention to the mental maturity of the learners, a thorough knowledge of what is to be taught, functional application of information to community problems, use of meaningful terms, and use of many illustrations in daily teaching. It also requires the use of content in situations significant to children. You will develop the ability to make content meaningful as you study the group, the community, the course of study, and available instructional resources, and as you discuss teaching plans with your supervising teacher and develop specific learning experiences with children.

Use Group Processes. Effective group processes are essential to effective teaching. Group processes in the classroom involve

group discussion, sharing, planning, doing, and evaluating. Thorough preparation for group work, careful organization of materials and space arrangements, and tactful guidance and evaluation are essential preparatory tasks for you to carry out. Through experiences in working with children you can attain real growth in this vital aspect of teaching competence.



San Diego

Small-group discussion can be used in a variety of situations involving group processes.

Use Varied Materials. Skill in using instructional resources and techniques is another key element in teaching competence. Bulletin boards, exhibits, filmstrips, motion pictures, and chalkboard, field trips, demonstrations, the library, references, textbooks, and other resources are used skillfully by competent teachers. The selection, use, and evaluation of these materials pose problems that you can clarify and solve as you use varied instructional resources in student teaching.

Evaluate Outcomes. Growth in ability to evaluate the development and learning of children is an aspect of teaching competence.

tence that should receive major emphasis in all phases of student teaching. From the time of your initial study of the group and your preliminary planning, to the last day of student teaching, you should be concerned about the value, worthwhileness, and outcomes of your work. Continuous appraisal in light of specific purposes is a basic principle that you can put to use each day. Check lists and teacher-made tests will be helpful in appraising specific outcomes of instruction. You can use examination of the pupil's work, individual interviews, and cumulative records as you appraise individual children. Through such experiences you will refine your evaluative techniques and will develop a workable set of guide-lines for evaluating your instruction.

Maintain Professional Relationships. Competent teachers give serious attention to professional relationships by adhering to ethical principles and by participating in professional enterprises. Relationships with one's co-workers, pupils, parents, the community, and the profession are clearly defined in codes of ethics. (See pages 9-12 and 415-418.) Participation in professional enterprises is provided through local, state, and national organizations and by means of in-service education activities such as curriculum committees, faculty meetings, workshops, and institutes. As a student teacher you should "live by" a code of ethics, and get acquainted with as many in-service education activities as possible. The following code of ethics for student teachers suggests definite principles and policies for you to keep in mind. It has been adapted with minor changes from a code developed by the California Student Teachers Association.²

STUDENT TEACHER CODE OF ETHICS

Student Teacher and Pupils

1. All information about children is to be kept confidential.
2. Be more concerned with what is being achieved with the children than with impressions being made on the supervising teacher or the supervisor.

² *Handbook for Chapter Officers and Committee Chairmen.* California Student Teachers Association, California Teachers Association, San Francisco, 1950.

3. Maintain the dignity necessary to gain the respect of pupils. Always act like an adult.

4. Show high regard for each child; show enthusiasm for each area of the curriculum that you teach.

5. Be sympathetic and courteous toward all pupils.

6. Consider yourself a member of the community in which you are teaching and act accordingly.

7. Disciplinary measures used by the student teacher should conform to the policies and instructions of the supervising teacher. [See Chapter 6 for detailed discussion of discipline.]

8. Be a good example to your pupils in every way—physically, mentally, ethically.

9. Be just as interested in and just as ready to assist with the improvement of the class as if it were your own.

10. Recognize that each child is an individual, and take into consideration individual abilities, interests, and capacities for learning.

11. Be impartial in dealing with pupils, and strive to be fair while judging a pupil's actions.

12. Refrain from imposing your own religious or political views upon pupils; exhibit a broad-minded, tolerant attitude toward other groups and individuals.

Student Teacher and Supervisor

1. Consider a supervisor as one who is helping you to become a competent teacher.

2. Attention of the pupils must not be drawn to the supervisor, or to the likelihood of a visit by the supervisor, unless instructions are received to the contrary.

3. Provide the supervisor with plans, textbooks, or materials being used. This should be done before class starts. There should be no reason to converse with the supervisor during the class period.

4. When the class begins, concentrate on the lesson and forget that you are being observed by a supervisor.

5. Provide time in which you and the supervisor may have a conference in order to discuss problems of teaching.

6. Be appreciative of criticism and seek suggestions.

Student Teacher and Supervising Teacher

1. Remember that the supervising teacher is in legal control of the class and is legally responsible for it.
2. You and the supervising teacher should respect one another's professional rights and personal dignity.
3. Accept the supervising teacher's decisions concerning the material to be covered and the method of presentation.
4. Assume no authority that has not been specifically delegated by the supervising teacher.
5. Know definitely what is expected of you by the supervising teacher.
6. Complete cooperation should be established between you and the supervising teacher; conferences should be held as scheduled.
7. The supervising teacher is eager to help; suggestions and criticisms should be accepted by you with this in mind.
8. Support the supervising teacher in matters of school discipline. [See Chapter 6.]
9. Have your lesson plans checked by the supervising teacher in accordance with policies that have been made.
10. Cheerfully do any task which will aid the supervising teacher in conducting the class. Be imaginative and creative in making suggestions and in planning.
11. Give due credit to the supervising teacher for all assistance given to you.
12. If you feel you are having difficulty in the situation, you should first consult the supervising teacher. If the results are not satisfactory, you should talk to the supervisor.

Personal Attributes and Professional Growth

1. Respect those with whom you work—supervising teacher, supervisor, administrator, and fellow student teachers.
2. Remember that student teaching is a learning situation; be willing and eager to receive suggestions and carry them out.
3. Adapt your behavior and practices to the situation in which you do your student teaching. Be guided by what is considered acceptable in your particular room, school, and district.

4. Be an active member of a recognized local, state, or national educational organization.
5. Acquaint yourself with the professional organizations. Begin to read professional literature in education and in special fields.
6. Manifest genuine pride in the teaching profession.
7. Consider yourself a member of the profession and act in all matters according to its code of ethics. [See the N.E.A. Code, page 415.]
8. Know the legal responsibilities of teachers in your state.
9. Strive always to broaden your knowledge and be well informed on current events.
10. Attend and participate in the non-classroom school duties of the supervising teacher.
11. Be well-groomed and practice sound principles of hygiene, and of good morals.
12. Display a democratic attitude toward all the teachers in the school in which you are placed.

SUGGESTIONS AND EXPECTANCIES OF CO-WORKERS

The first section of this chapter has outlined specific aspects of teaching competence and professional relationships important in student teaching. Now let us consider the suggestions and expectancies of the individuals with whom you will be working. What do supervising teachers suggest? What suggestions do school officials make? What do pupils expect? What do supervisors expect? In the following pages, attention is given to each of the foregoing questions. Bear in mind that you will learn about other expectancies, and will secure additional suggestions as you participate in student teaching. However, the following will help you to get off to a good start.

Suggestions from School Administrators

First, let us consider suggestions from school administrators. Arrangements for the placement of student teachers typically are made through the offices of the school superintendent and the principal. Their specific suggestions follow:

Get acquainted with the total school program. Although major emphasis will be given to classroom instruction during student teaching, you should learn as much as possible about other aspects of the elementary-school program. Of major importance are clubs, after-school activities, school-community relationships, and policies



Englewood, Colorado

Get acquainted with the total school program, outdoors and indoors.

and procedures related to fire drill, playground, lunchroom, and other out-of-class duties typically assigned to regular teachers.

The role of the teacher in maintaining and improving school-community relationships needs attention in student teaching. First of all, your impact upon community relations needs consideration, because of the very fact that you are a student teacher. No parent wants his child to be used as a "guinea pig" or to have some college student try out "half-baked" or poorly planned ideas. This does not mean that you will fail to use new and original ideas. It simply

means that your planning and teaching must be done thoroughly and effectively.

Note the kind of neighborhood or community in which the school is located. Observe the type of dwellings from which the children come. Check records to determine the occupation of parents. Note the nearest shopping center, stores, and playgrounds. Through observation of the community and discussions with the supervising teacher, get a feeling for the community backgrounds of education that are essential to effective teaching.

Sometimes you will be tempted to criticize policies and practices that appear to you to be out of line with your own ideas or philosophy of education. This is natural, since perfection can rarely be found in any situation. Yet, we ask you to seek an understanding of the reasons behind established policies and to work in a manner consistent with them. Discussions with your supervising teacher and the principal will be helpful in this regard.

You are expected to follow policies established by the Board of Education. By conferring with your supervising teacher, you can make sure that plans and procedures that you hope to use with pupils are consistent with over-all policies of the school system.

Be sure to adhere to individual school standards and regulations. These have been designed to develop a sound program for children and to give consistency to our ways of working together. If you have questions about them, check with the supervising teacher. Remember that a deviation from them raises many questions in the pupil's minds and creates confusion about your role in our program.

Remember that the supervising teacher is responsible for the pupils in his class. Hence, the judgment of the supervising teacher should always be secured and followed on problems and issues that arise.

View student teaching as a realistic teaching experience; it is not an ordinary college class. Act like a teacher, approach your class like a teacher, and be proud to be a teacher.

You will find many opportunities to learn a great deal about the behavior of children. Observe carefully as pupils engage in various school activities and note how they behave, how they react to each other and to teachers, and what values and customs they esteem. See how they act in the halls, in the lunchroom, and on the playground. Give special attention to the work of teachers, how they handle prob-

lems, how they make suggestions, and what specific techniques they use. Make notes for future reference, for when you are on your own, the more ideas you have picked up on school problems the better off you will be.

Suggestions from Supervising Teachers

Attention is next given to expectancies and suggestions of the supervising teacher, a key person in the student-teaching program. Supervising teachers are eager and willing to help you become a competent teacher. Your experiences in student teaching will be of greatest value if you give them maximum cooperation. Specific suggestions made by supervising teachers follow:

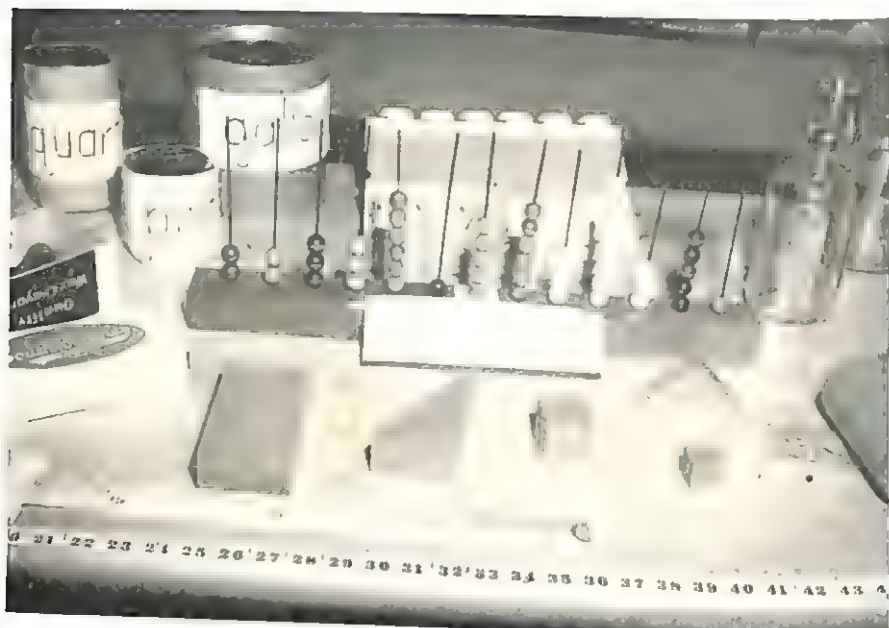
Feel free to talk things over and to ask for help and suggestions. We were student teachers once too, and we remember well the help that was given to us. We are eager to assist in your induction into teaching and want you to do well, and to develop an excellent program for the learners in our classes. A feeling of freedom to talk things over will help greatly.

We will both be very busy, so keeping appointments and scheduled conferences is as important to you as it is to us. Let's notify each other if circumstances arise that force either of us to miss conferences or to be late.

Be mature and give evidence of a good cultural background in all relationships with children and co-workers. Dress in accordance with the standards set by teachers in the school, use correct language, and be courteous and tactful in personal relationships. Self-confidence and self-control are earmarks of the mature person. Avoid gum-chewing, using rough language, speaking down to children, dressing as a "Joe College" hobby-soxer or a college sweater girl, and using sarcasm, ridicule, or displays of temper to correct misbehavior.

It will be helpful for us to have background information about you regarding: extracurricular activities in which you have participated, special competencies you possess in such fields as art, music, and physical education; work you have done with children; places to which you have traveled; collections or hobbies you can share and other unique contributions you can make; and your schedule of classes and work activities. Such information will enable us to help you in your planning.

Good planning is essential! First, we will get an overview of the term's work, individual needs and differences, and expectancies for the class. A thorough acquaintance with available instructional resources, such as textbooks, films, slides, recordings, and community resources, is essential. You should make known any special and original contributions you can make, such as showing materials, discussing your travels, and preparing slides. Show initiative by put-



Richmond, California

Be resourceful in providing instructional materials.

ting new materials and ideas into your plans. Continue to gather new materials and to use them throughout the term to meet special needs of individuals in the group.

Teaching plans should be turned in before you do any teaching. Observe the schedule we will make for turning in plans and avoid the error of rushing in just before class starts to have your plans checked. If you leave everything till the last minute, it will be impossible to give you help and suggestions that will improve your work.

When you are teaching, be sure to arrive at school early enough to

place material on the chalkboard, arrange the bulletin board, or carry out other activities essential to the day's work.

Get acquainted with established classroom routines, such as checking attendance, making announcements, returning papers, and room clean-up. Through observation and discussion, these routines may be clarified early in the term. It will be helpful to follow them and thus avoid confusion and misunderstanding on the part of pupils. If you think some changes are in order, let's talk them over.



Albany, California

Be a good housekeeper and keep the classroom attractive and orderly.

Give attention to the care of the classroom and instructional materials, including audio-visual equipment. Be a good housekeeper so that the classroom will be neat and orderly. Keep materials in order; get thoroughly acquainted with them before you use them. Report any needs for repair. Use established routines for securing pupil participation in room clean-up and care of supplies. And keep your purse with you so that children will not be confronted with the temptation of exploring its contents.

Be sure of the facts and information involved in specific learning experiences. Confidence in your teaching ability on the part of pupils can be secured only if you have adequate subject-matter backgrounds. To this end you should plan systematically, become thor-

oughly acquainted with the pupils' texts and other materials, and study references for teachers when necessary.

Consider the pupils' level of understanding as you guide discussions, suggest readings, plan work, and speak to the class. Use terms and concepts that are meaningful; develop the meaning of new terms and concepts when it becomes necessary to use them. Avoid the error of trying to use college-level ideas, plans, and materials with elementary-school children.

Be sure that there is something for the children to *do* during each class period. Learning is at a maximum and discipline problems are at a minimum when children are busily engaged in profitable work.

In summarizing group plans for work, or in making assignments and giving directions, give attention to simplicity and clarity. Each child should know what to do, when to do it, how it is to be done, and where information can be secured.

Finally, other ideas and suggestions will be made as we work together during the term. Let's work as a team and maintain working relationships that are harmonious and mutually profitable.

Expectancies of Children

Now let us examine some expectancies of children themselves. The suggestions listed below were secured in individual interviews with pupils, and from supervising teachers who noted children's reactions to student teachers. The suggestions are in many ways a reflection of key aspects of teaching competence from the learner's point of view. As you read them, notice the importance of studying individual needs, planning, using varied techniques and materials, showing respect for pupils as persons, and using cooperative group processes.

1. Dress like regular teachers, not like cheer leaders, sweater girls, or bobby-soxers.
2. Act like an adult all the time. Don't mimic us or speak down to us.
3. We don't like to be ridiculed or embarrassed. Don't be sarcastic.
4. Control yourself. It is silly to "blow your top" in front of us. Don't get upset when someone "acts funny" in class.

5. Speak so everyone can hear. Don't talk so fast we can't follow or so slow that we get bored.
6. Treat all of us fair and square, no favorites.
7. Don't pick on us for every little thing that happens.
8. Have good suggestions for things to do instead of a lot of "don'ts."
9. Remember that we have feelings, so try to understand when we are not up to par. Please don't "bawl us out" in front of others.



Oakland

Children like to be kept busy on worth-while activities.

10. Don't try to show up our regular teacher or change everything. And don't brag about what you did in college or high school.
11. Don't run down our school by making nasty remarks about it, or comparing it unfavorably with other schools.
12. "Know your stuff" in teaching and know what you are going to do each day.
13. Have something for us to do each class period. We don't like to just sit and listen all the time.
14. Talk over what is to be done instead of starting right in

before we know what to do. We can't discuss something when we don't know what it's all about.

15. Don't go over our heads. Ask clear questions. Use words we understand. Explain directions and assignments so we know what to do.

16. Give us a chance to answer questions and give our ideas. Don't have all the answers yourself. Don't repeat all the points made in discussion.

17. Have different things for us to do, not the same old thing every day.

Suggestions from the Supervisor

Finally, let us consider suggestions and expectancies of the supervisor of student teaching. As with the other co-workers mentioned above, your supervisor will inform you of specific regulations and guide-lines of importance in your particular situation. The following suggestions will be helpful to you on many questions and problems.

Take the initiative in approaching the supervising teacher to secure help and advice. Emphasize the fact that you want to be a good teacher, that you desire suggestions, and that you want to get the most out of student teaching. Such an approach opens the way for sympathetic help from the supervising teacher and results in good working relationships. Suggestions flow freely when they are requested by you and used to improve your planning.

Let nothing interfere with your work in student teaching. Recognize the fact that the pupils with whom you are working deserve the very best program that can be developed. The privilege of working with them carries the responsibility for doing a good job.

Don't embarrass the supervising teacher by behaving in any way that shows a lack of respect for teaching as a profession. For example, remarks about teaching as a stop-gap job, as a stepping stone to another profession, or as a "job for those who can't do anything else" are offensive to members of the profession. Be careful, too, of your appearance, use of language, manners, and speech, for carelessness and neglect in these matters can be embarrassing.

A few minutes spent in checking and improving personal characteristics will pay real dividends. Examine yourself as your supervisor

ing teacher, pupils, and others see you. And don't think that personal appearance is unimportant! Make the best possible appearance each day, being sure to show good taste and to avoid extremes. Bear in mind that appearance involves more than the clothes you wear. Manner, poise, language, posture, and similar factors are all part of the impression you make on others. Check yourself on the following checklist, adding other points which you know are important:

Personal Checkup

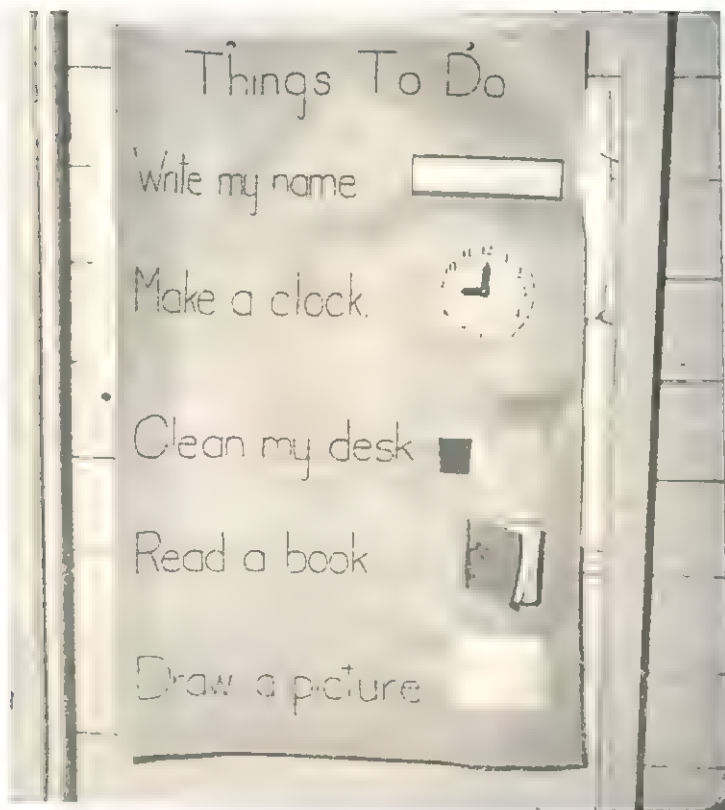
- Clothes*: clean, pressed, good color combinations, appropriate.
- Shoes*: comfortable, polished, practical for school.
- Accessories*: clean, appropriate, in harmony with clothes.
- Jewelry*: attractive, in good taste, appealing to children.
- Face*: clean, not shiny, a smile on it.
- Hair*: well-groomed, combed, not severe, clean.
- Breath*: clean and sweet, not offensive, de-odorized as needed.
- Voice*: varied pitch, easy to listen to, not tense.
- Posture*: erect, not tense, good example for children.
- Bearing*: alert, poised, confident.
- Language*: correct usage, meaningful to children, appropriate.
- Writing*: legible, neat, accurate spelling, correct letter forms.
- Others*: —————

Your own readiness for student teaching requires some consideration. You should have a schedule that allows sufficient time to plan adequately for the many responsibilities you will assume. Your attitude should be characterized by a willingness to cooperate fully with your co-workers, and a firm resolve to let nothing interfere with your doing a good job. Remember that the learning of the children in your class is of first importance. Pep and good health are essential; hence plenty of rest and sound living habits are mandatory for you. Stay home when you are ill, but be sure to notify appropriate individuals according to instructions. Do not worry, fret, or become fearful regarding problems that have needlessly disturbed some student teachers, such as the following:

1. *Making mistakes in front of the class.* If you make a mistake and it goes unnoticed, simply correct it and proceed in a matter-of-fact way. If a mistake is called to your attention by a pupil, thank him, correct it, and proceed without embarrassment.
2. *Not knowing what to say.* A good plan for the day's work is to make sure beforehand of what you are going to say. If necessary,

write out and even practice your opening remarks a time or two. Observe the manner in which your supervising teacher begins the daily program and moves from one part to the next.

3. *Not knowing the answers to children's questions.* No person can possibly know all the answers. It is sound procedure to get



Los Angeles

Be sure that children have plenty of work to do that is meaningful and significant to them.

answers from the group, to suggest individual and group study to find answers, or to propose individual interviews of experts who know the answers. Another good procedure is to have children suggest ways to find answers to the "important question that was just raised." In some instances, of course, the question will be of minor importance and you will simply give the answer and move on to the next point of discussion.

4. *Not having sufficient work.* Always include supplementary work in your plans. Be prepared also to read a story, or to suggest recreational reading, art work, or another activity after the completion of a particular job. In most classrooms, it is understood that if any child finishes his work before the others, he is to read a library book, or to undertake some other independent activity.

5. *Being unable to handle disciplinary problems.* Good plans to keep children profitably at work, plus an understanding of the children in your group, will prevent most problems from arising. Use the same techniques of control that your supervising teacher uses and secure any needed help on difficult cases.

6. *Not being liked by children.* Children like teachers who provide well-planned work, and who are friendly, fair, patient, understanding, and act like adults at all times. Encouragement, commendation for work well done, and respect for each child's contributions are specific factors in developing high morale among children as well as high regard for the teacher. Avoid the use of sarcasm, ridicule, and belittling remarks. Remember that student teachers who keep such points in mind, and who present an attractive appearance are always liked by children.

Such problems as these bring out the importance of having confidence in yourself and of having profited from courses you have taken in preparing to become a teacher. In fact, if serious doubts about your ability existed in the minds of those in charge of student teaching, you would have been advised against continuing the teacher-education program. So substitute good planning for any worries or fears that may arise, and seek help and criticism from the supervising teacher and from me. Put our suggestions to work in your teaching.

Be alert to problems and difficulties that *you* feel are developing. You are the first to know about them in many instances, so bring them into the open for help and discussion. If you conceal problems or are hesitant about mentioning them, you are not only delaying their solution, but, in addition, you may be increasing the difficulty of solution.

If something goes wrong or doesn't work, or if a mistake is made, talk it over and get help and advice. Admit errors, with full recognition of the fact that growth in teaching competence takes place faster when reality is faced and when steps are taken to meet each

problem as it arises. Ask for help and it will be given sincerely and with a full understanding that all teachers make occasional mistakes and profit from constructive suggestions.

If at any time there appears to be a conflict between the ideas you have learned and the suggestions of the supervising teacher, follow the suggestions of the supervising teacher. Later, discuss the problem with me. Rarely, if ever, will issues arise that cannot be resolved easily through discussion. By all means do not become "bull-headed," stubborn, or disturbed and thereby create personality conflicts.

The supervising teacher and I are frequently called upon to make recommendations regarding your potentialities as a teacher. In some instances, letters of recommendation are written; in others a check list is used, such as the one on page 25, which illustrates points in which employing officials are interested. Keep them in mind as you engage in student teaching and endeavor to achieve a high rating on each of them.

One word on expecting too much from student teaching. Remember that student teaching gets you off to a good start on the road to becoming an outstanding teacher; it does not complete the job. Growth continues after you have accepted a position as a full-time teacher, because it is impossible to anticipate every problem that will arise in a professional activity such as teaching. This is true of all professions. Furthermore, all professions require persistent study and growth on the job. Remember that this is your first position, and take advantage of the many opportunities available to you in in-service education programs.

Summary

The foregoing section has enumerated many suggestions that will help you in student teaching. All have been made sincerely, in the hope that you will find them useful and practical. Re-read them from time to time as you carry out the many experiences that develop in student teaching. Be alert to other suggestions from those who are in charge of your program.

The next two chapters present practical suggestions on preparation for student teaching. Read both chapters as soon as possible, so that you will waste no time in getting ready to make specific plans.

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA—BUREAU OF RECOMMENDATIONS

MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA

Name of Teacher _____

It is the custom of the University of Minnesota to ask for information from time to time concerning the character, ability, and professional success of its former students who are engaged in educational work. Will you kindly describe the teacher by checking at the proper point on the line for the given form of behavior. Mark intermediate points between descriptions as desired to suit your judgment. As you check each item, try to think of specific observations to justify your rating.

	No Opportunity To Observe ()		
HOW DOES HIS PERSONAL APPEARANCE IMPRESS YOU?	Makes good impression	Makes average impression	Appears well groomed, clean, excellent
HOW DOES HIS PERSONALITY AFFECT OTHER PEOPLE?	Antagonizes and irritates others	Gets along reasonably well	Especially harmonious, friendly and pleasing in relations with others
HOW DO PUPILS REACT TOWARD HIM?	Pupils dislike him and show little interest in work	Pupils respond well to suggestions but bore only fair in class and out-of-class	Pupils are eager, alert, interested
IS HE (EMOTIONALLY) WELL POISED?	Too easily moved to anger or depression	Usually well controlled, self-possession	Appears at ease even in difficult situations, excellent self-control
IS HIS VOICE EFFECTIVE?	Voice harsh, irritating, unpleasant	Agreeable voice, quality and strength good	Especially pleasing and effective voice
DOES HE EXPRESS HIMSELF CLEARLY?	Makes frequent errors in speech, expression difficult	Makes himself understood reasonably well, English usually good	Excellent command of English, conveys ideas clearly and effectively
WHAT IS HIS ATTITUDE TOWARD PUPILS IN SCHOOL ACTIVITIES?	Dominates, decides all assignments	Encourages pupil participation in classroom work in some extent	Encourages pupil initiative and participation in background and guidance without
WHAT IS THE ATMOSPHERE OF HIS CLASSROOM?	Atmosphere depressing, dull, passive	Atmosphere comfortable, pupils feel at home	Atmosphere lively, sparkling, good humor present
HOW DOES HE CONTROL UNEXPECTED SITUATIONS?	Stiff, helpless, & under, poor decisions, loses control	Meets emergencies fairly well, pupils obedient	Anticipates emergencies, perfectly confident, pupils alert, actively engaged in work
ARE THE LESSONS WELL PLANNED AND EXECUTED?	Confused about where to begin and what to do	Lessons fairly well planned and executed	Interesting lessons show evidence of such careful planning pupils respond with personal activity toward goals which they recognize
WHAT USE DOES HE MAKE OF MATERIALS OF INSTRUCTION?	Uses textbook only	Supplements textbook to some extent	Makes free and use of wide variety of source materials
DOES HE SHOW INITIATIVE AND AMBITION? ABILITY TO DIRECT HIS OWN ACTIVITIES?	Requires prodding to get him to work, shirks responsibility	Works cheerfully under supervision but requires occasional help	Looks for ways to do without supervision and works on own initiative
HOW DOES HE REACT TO SUGGESTIONS?	Is offended by suggestions	Accepts suggestions and performs duties as assigned	Constantly seeks help and cheerfully cooperates with others for the improvement of instruction
HOW DOES HE PROVIDE FOR EQUIPMENT?	Neglects equipment, room disorderly	Keeps necessary equipment in order	Excellent care of equipment, plans for improvement
DOES HE ADJUST HIMSELF TO THE COMMUNITY?	Insists on conduct which is not approved in the community	Adapts adequately in community	Participates actively in many ways, while common by expectations, with respect of community

OVER—BE SURE TO WRITE STATEMENT ON REVERSE SIDE

Space is provided on reverse side for a description of the candidate's qualifications.

Suggestions for Further Reading

- Burr, J. B., L. W. Harding, and L. B. Jacobs, *Student Teaching in Elementary Schools*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950. Chapter I presents suggestions for self-analysis and maintaining good relations with co-workers.
- Hefernan, Helen (ed), *Guiding the Young Child*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1951. A practical guide to the development of rich learning experiences in the kindergarten.
- Mehl, Marie A., H. H. Mills, and H. R. Douglass, *Teaching in Elementary School*. New York: The Ronald Press, 1950. Chapters I, XXII, and XXIII present suggestions relative to responsibilities, professional problems, and in-service education of elementary teachers.
- Otto, H. J., *Principles of Elementary Education*. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1949. Chapter XV gives a good discussion of the teacher as a person, citizen, and professional worker.
- Saucier, W. A., *Theory and Practice in the Elementary School*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951. Chapter XVI discusses problems faced by teachers; many practical suggestions are made relative to both pre-service and in-service experiences.
- Schorling, Raleigh, and G. M. Wingo, *Elementary-school Student Teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950. Chapter I discusses points to keep in mind in making a successful beginning, with attention to traits of well-liked teachers, personal appearance, personality, and the like.
- Wiles, Kimball, *Teaching for Better Schools*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. Chapter II presents a discussion of the essential functions of the teacher, with emphasis on warm human relations, effective group work, and individualizing instruction.
- Wills, C. D., and W. H. Stegeman, *Living in the Kindergarten*. Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1950. A handbook for kindergarten teachers; suggests a variety of activities that can be used to meet the needs of five-year-olds.

2

Preparation for Student Teaching

SEVERAL preliminary steps must be taken prior to actual student teaching. In fact, several tasks must be carried out before detailed planning can be done. These include observation in the classroom, participation in classroom activities, assisting the supervising teacher, learning classroom routines, learning school policies, determining available teaching resources, and getting acquainted with instructional guides for teachers. Studying the community and learning about community resources are also essential. Systematic study of children as individuals and as members of various groups in the classroom is likewise of great importance. In this chapter, attention is given to studying classroom and school policies, and suggestions are offered regarding community study. In the following chapter, attention is given to techniques to use in studying pupils. Both chapters should be studied concurrently, since the suggestions given in each will be carried out simultaneously as you prepare for actual teaching.

PRELIMINARY OBSERVATION IN SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

Extensive preliminary observation in the classroom is prerequisite to effective planning for student teaching. During preliminary observation you should get a feeling for the atmosphere of the classroom and secure specific information regarding classroom procedures. You will also discover various jobs you can undertake to assist the supervising teacher. To be of greatest

value, preliminary observation should be directed toward the specific aspects of classroom procedure discussed below.

Names of Children. One of your first tasks is to learn the children's names. Make a seating chart and memorize each child's name as quickly as possible. Knowing the names of children is the first step in getting off to a good start.

Daily Program. Another immediate job is to make a copy of the daily schedule. Observe your supervising teacher to note the

ORGANIZATION OF CLASS FOR READING PRIMARY GRADES			
I		II	III
16 min	Reading Games Number Games Books, Science	Read	Choice of clay, painting, drawing
16 min	Read	Reading Games Number Games Books, Science	
20-30 min	Active Period—Play, etc.		
3 min	Choice of clay, painting, drawing	Read	Reading Games Number Games Books, Science
3 min		Reading Games Number Games Books, Science	Read

Oakland

Get acquainted with established plans of organization in reading, social studies, arithmetic.

amount of work that is usually done in a given period of time, e.g., in reading or in social studies. Notice also how much flexibility exists and what deviations from time allotments are permitted. Always give adequate attention to children's needs for a rhythm of activity and rest; avoid sustained periods of work on the same activity. Note how changes are made from one period to the next in a smooth and uninterrupted manner. Note how children are guided to see relationships between various aspects of the daily program. Observe the specific jobs that are carried out by children at definitely scheduled times.

Standards of Behavior. A well-organized classroom exhibits standards of behavior that have been cooperatively developed by the teacher and pupils for use in a variety of situations. In some instances the standards will be lettered on charts or written on the chalkboard. In others they will have been developed in discussion and simply put to use, being reviewed and evaluated in discussion as needs arise. In either event, note the standards that are being utilized in such situations as the following:

Group discussion	Use of free time	Construction	Lunchroom
Informal conversation	Rest periods	Rhythms	Playground
Sharing and telling	Leaving the room	Dramatic play	Assembly
Making reports	Entering the room	Classroom games	Library

In addition to noting standards already in use, be alert to possible standards that you may develop cooperatively with the pupils in your class. The examples on page 30 are illustrative of standards frequently used in the elementary school.

Classroom Facilities. A thorough acquaintance with classroom facilities and procedures for using them will expedite planning and improve the effectiveness of your teaching. Give particular attention to the following, noting special uses, procedures, and responsibilities of both teacher and pupils in connection with their use:

—Blackboard	—Lighting	—Work bench
—Bulletin board	—Heating	—Tools
—Charts, chart rack	—Ventilation	—Construction materials
—Reading center	—Storage space	—Book shelves
—Art center	—Cloakroom	—Filing cabinets
—Work and play area	—Supply cupboards	—Play materials
—Others:		

Make notes on possible uses of existing facilities in your own teaching.

Routine Classroom Procedures. An important responsibility in student teaching is to learn certain classroom procedures used by your supervising teacher. There are many established routines that you will adopt and use as you work with the group.

WORK STANDARDS

1. Share tools.
2. Stay in your own work space.
3. Help others when asked.
4. Stop when the signal is given.

CLEAN-UP TIME

1. Stop when the signal is given.
2. Put the tools in the rack.
3. Put your work on the shelf.
4. Do your own clean-up job.
5. Help others if you have time.

DISCUSSION

1. Speak so all can hear.
2. Say something important.
3. Tell the ideas in order.
4. Leave out words like "and-a" and "well-a."

OUR BOOKS

1. Read them to have fun.
2. Share fun with others.
3. Keep them clean.
4. Keep corners flat.
5. Do not mark on them.
6. Return them to the shelves when through.

COMMITTEE WORK

1. Give everyone a chance to give ideas.
2. If you disagree, do so politely.
3. Accept and finish jobs agreed upon.
4. Help the chairman.

MONITORS

1. Report on time.
2. Stick to the job.
3. Do not disturb others.
4. Finish as soon as possible.
5. Return to seats and begin work promptly.

LISTENING

Sit quietly.
Watch the speaker.
Be ready to ask a question.

PASSING

Leave the room one row
at a time.
Stay in line.
Keep hands off others.
Walk all the way.
Look out for others.

This does not mean that you will mimic or copy every single aspect of the supervising teacher's behavior. Rather, you should determine the routine procedures discussed in this section (and others suggested by the supervising teacher or supervisor) and use them with only those modifications that your supervising



Los Angeles

Learn established classroom routines early in the term and assist in carrying them out.

teacher approves. By quickly mastering a few routines, you will free yourself to give major time and attention to planning, developing, and evaluating rich learning experiences. You will avoid minor disciplinary problems that sometimes arise when teachers fail to take care of routine procedures.

Remember that the procedures established by your supervising teacher have been found to work well with the children in your room, and in many instances the children have assisted in setting them up. An unexplained deviation from standards usually creates confusion. Knowing established routines thoroughly will give you confidence and will convey a favorable impression to the pupils. Use the check list below to guide your observation in the classroom. Check off each routine after you learn it.

Check List of Classroom Routines

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Calling the class to order | <input type="checkbox"/> Care of register |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Taking the roll | <input type="checkbox"/> Care of supplies and playground equipment |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Conducting health inspection | <input type="checkbox"/> Care of textbooks |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Making announcements | <input type="checkbox"/> Care of wraps |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sharing and discussing personal experiences | <input type="checkbox"/> Care of lunches |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Conducting room meetings | <input type="checkbox"/> Care of plants |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Collecting money for lunch, etc. | <input type="checkbox"/> Care of aquarium |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Starting groups to work | <input type="checkbox"/> Duties of monitors |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Distributing materials | <input type="checkbox"/> Selection of monitors |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Collecting materials | <input type="checkbox"/> Fire and air-raid drill |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Calling on pupils | <input type="checkbox"/> Use of reading center |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Giving a pupil permission to leave the room | <input type="checkbox"/> Use of art center |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Dismissing the class | <input type="checkbox"/> Lost and found items |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> Others: _____ |

PRELIMINARY PARTICIPATION

Before you begin actual teaching, you should participate in various classroom activities. Such participation will give you an "at home" feeling, and will acquaint you with the children and

the handling of routine procedures. Some opportunities for participation will be suggested by the supervising teacher; others will arise as you observe work going on in the classroom. Examples are:

1. Make a seating chart and learn the names of pupils. Check the roll after you have learned the procedure to be followed; file notes of absence.



Oakland

Participation in small-group activities is excellent preparation for teaching.

2. Assist in arranging and distributing materials, arranging the bulletin board, writing material on the chalkboard, making charts, making word cards, printing labels for containers, mounting pictures, and arranging flowers.
3. Give assistance to individuals and small groups as suggested by the supervising teacher. Be careful not to give help that really is not needed, or to do something the child should do on his own.
4. Accompany individuals and groups to the library, principal's office, nurse's office, auditorium, or lunchroom.
5. Assist in playground, lunchroom, hall, or stair duties.

6. Correct tests and papers, noting individual strengths and weaknesses.

7. Assist in such activities as collecting lunch or milk money, putting wraps and lunches in their proper places, keeping book shelves and supply cupboards in order, and arranging for room clean-up.

8. Be prepared to read a story to the group, play and discuss a record, show a filmstrip, participate in a game or rhythm, or introduce a picture or book related to a current activity.

9. Assist in preparing notices to parents, independent work for children, or other duplicated materials for classroom use.

Remember that being alert to ways in which you can help during the first week will get you off to a good start and will give you confidence in your own ability to work with children. It's a good way to "break in" to actual teaching.

Learning School Policies and Regulations

There are several school policies and regulations that should be learned and followed during student teaching. By becoming familiar with them, you will learn a great deal about the teacher's responsibilities in school administration and will be able to help in carrying out policies that are essential to the smooth operation of a school. The check list on page 35 may be used as a guide for determining important regulations in your school. Although it lists more than you will probably use in student teaching, you will find it helpful in determining those that are most crucial in your situation.

Information on items contained in the check list may be secured from your supervising teacher, supervisor, or principal. In some elementary schools a handbook of policies and regulations will be made available to you. (If one is not available, perhaps your supervisor will drop a hint to the principal.)

There are certain points to keep in mind as you learn and carry out school policies. Determine those that must always be carried out through the supervising teacher and not by you alone, e.g., ordering supplies and reporting accidents. Give first attention to those policies that are crucial in your beginning

work, e.g., bell schedule, securing texts and materials, giving first aid, and fire (and air-raid) drill regulations. Many regulations will be learned as special needs arise, such as use of the auditorium, library, or playground.

School Policies and Practices

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| —School calendar | —Lunchroom regulations |
| —Bell schedule | —Toilet regulations |
| —Fire and air-raid drill | —Other special rooms |
| —Playground rules | —Health services |
| —Reporting accidents | —Duties of nurse |
| —First-aid service | —Physical examination of children |
| —Play equipment and apparatus | —Duties of special teachers |
| —Damage and need for repairs | —Services of guidance workers |
| —Entering the building | —Provisions for exceptional children |
| —Passing in corridors | —Welfare services |
| —Lost and found articles | —Testing program |
| —Enrolling new pupils | —Teachers' meetings |
| —Duties of school monitors | —Schedule of teachers' duties |
| —Duties of safety patrol | —Reports to parents |
| —Co-curricular activities | —Parent-teacher meetings |
| —Requisitioning supplies and teaching materials | —Professional and in-service meetings |
| —Use of duplicating equipment | —Home invitations |
| —Use of school library | —Other parental contacts |
| —Use of auditorium | |

Keep a notebook listing of special items you need to remember. The following examples taken from a student teacher's notebook are illustrative:

Fire drill: When signal is given, classes leave the room immediately by rows; march two abreast without talking or running; go to assigned station on the playground; remain at attention in order to hear directions; return to classrooms when signal is given.

First aid: Supplies are available in office; nurse gives assistance when available; teachers have first-aid certificates and give assist-

ance as needed; reports of accidents are made to the principal on cards provided by the central office; assist the supervising teacher in making reports.

Entering the building: Pupils line up when signal is given; pupils enter on second signal without shoving, pushing, or being boisterous; conversation ceases as pupils enter the room; each pupil takes his seat and rests quietly.

School library: Scheduled for my room on Tuesdays, 2:00 p.m.; materials on units available; librarian will assist in teaching library skills if scheduled ahead of time.

OUR LIBRARY

We get books.
We get pictures.
We read magazines.
We hear stories.

CHECKING OUT BOOKS

Find the book you want.
Write the number on the card.
Take book and card to librarian.
Return the book on time.

LEARNING ABOUT THE COMMUNITY

As a student teacher, you may not have the time to conduct an extensive community survey. However, you will be able to learn a great deal about the community in which your school is located without undue effort on your part. Directed observation as you come to school and go home will reveal some information. Conferences with your supervising teacher and the comments of children will also be revealing. You should drive or walk around the neighborhood and note the type of environment that surrounds the school. The following list enumerates key points for you to observe:

- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| —Housing conditions | —Safety hazards |
| —Types of homes | —Sanitary conditions |
| —New housing developments | —Needed improvements |
| —Recreational facilities | —Transportation facilities |

- | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------------|
| —Library facilities | —Main streets and highways |
| —Business establishments | —Minority groups |
| —Churches | —Major resources |
| —Welfare agencies | —Schools |
| —Police protection | —Fire protection |



Englewood, Colorado

Note busy street corners and other safety hazards.

SURVEYING INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

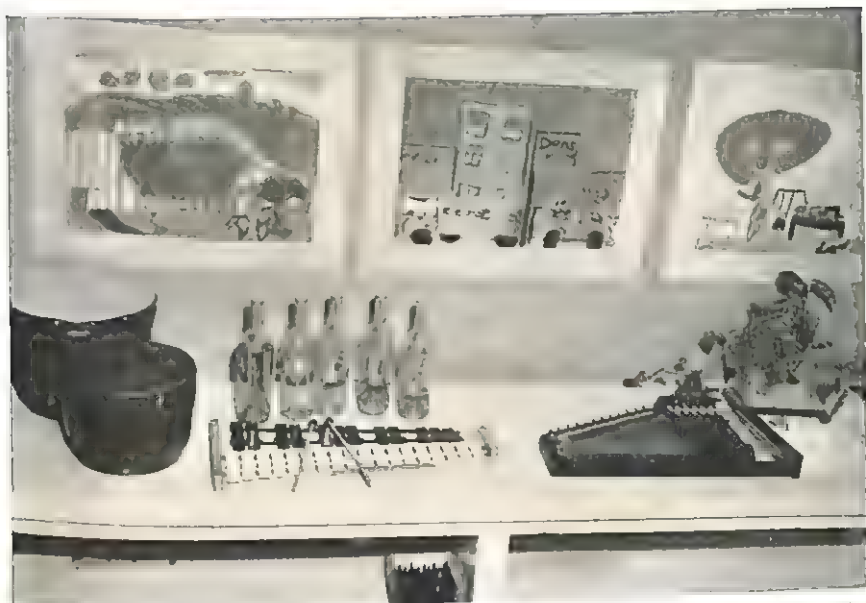
A survey of instructional resources will assist you in planning specific work for your class. The purpose of such a survey is to assure use of the best materials and methods available. Because of time limitations, you may not be able to ferret out every type of resource noted in this section, nor will your survey be completed in the first week. Rather, you will be on a continuous

search for good materials. The various check lists and suggestions in this section are organized to guide your search for materials in an efficient manner. Furthermore, you will find this section helpful when you accept your first position and must locate, organize, and utilize a complete set of instructional resources especially selected for your own class.

Course of Study. Check the course of study for specific suggestions on each area of the curriculum. Your supervising teacher will give you leads to the most helpful sections. Keep in mind the level of development of your pupils and their individual needs. Utilize the suggestions that are appropriate for your group.

Units of Work. Many school systems keep a file of units of work on a variety of topics, ranging from Home, School, and Neighborhood, to Our State, American Industries, and Life in South America. Contained in these units are specific purposes, concepts, information, attitudes, and skills to be developed as well as books, audio-visual materials, and community resources that can be used. Of course, such units of work should be adapted to the needs of pupils in your class. In some schools, materials related to a given unit are contained in a kit or box that you may secure on requisition. Your supervising teacher and supervisor will have suggestions on unit materials. After determining the materials that are immediately available, proceed to locate others as suggested in the sections that follow.

Basal Textbooks. Become thoroughly acquainted with the basal textbooks used in reading, arithmetic, and other areas of the curriculum. Determine the sections that are appropriate for use in your work with the class. Note sections related to units of work. Observe the plan of procedure used by the supervising teacher in utilizing texts in the developmental reading and arithmetic programs, and in other fields. Also note the groups into which pupils are organized and the special provisions that are made for individual differences as basal texts are utilized, e.g., grouping, individual work, provision of work sheets.

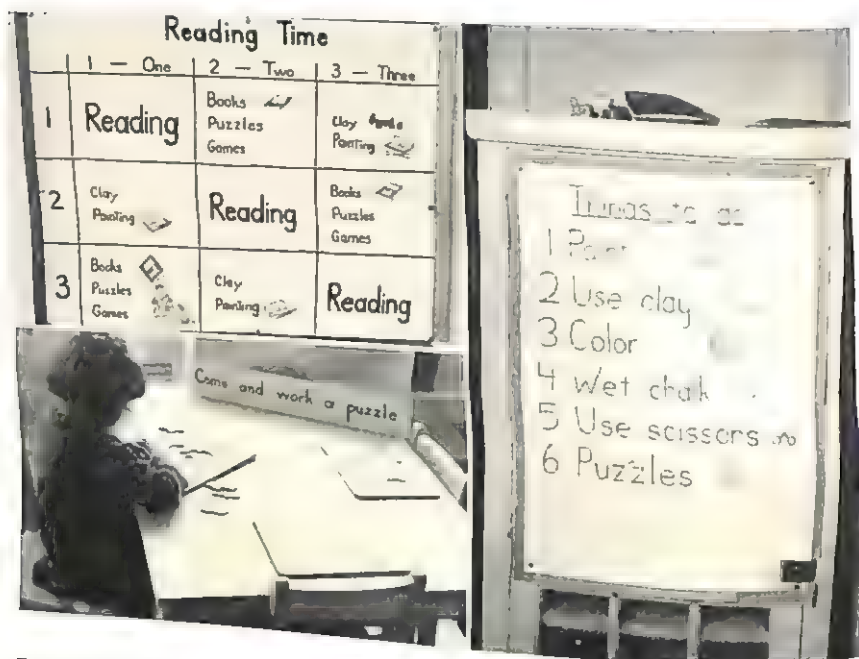


Los Angeles

Get acquainted with available resources.



Teacher's Manuals. The manuals that accompany textbooks in various fields contain suggestions prepared by experts. These suggestions are designed as an integral part of the text and should be scrutinized carefully to discover procedures appropriate for use in your class. For example, what concepts should be developed prior to the reading of a particular story? What techniques should be used to develop them? *If the ideas presented*



Prepare for independent activities that children can carry out as you work with other groups.

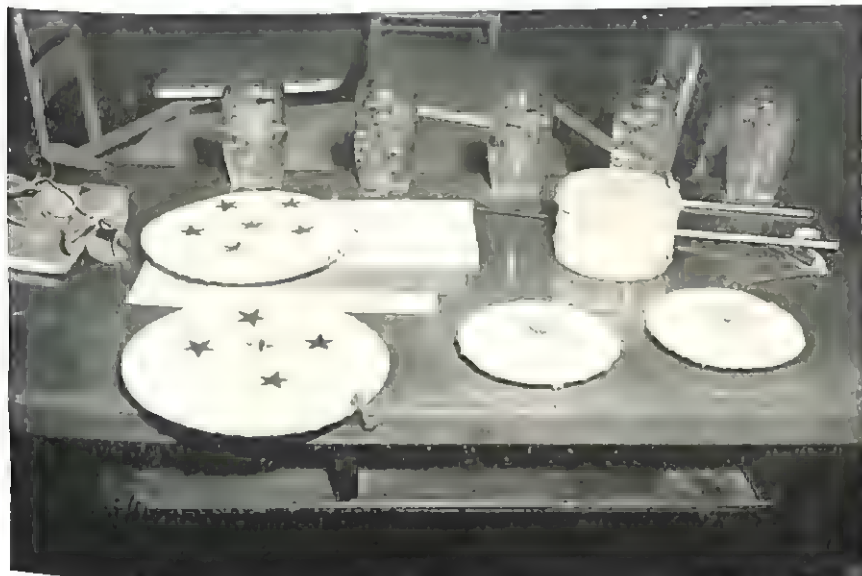
Los Angeles

are appropriate for use with your group, incorporate them in your plans. If you or your supervising teacher has better ideas, use them. But by all means check the manuals to be sure that important learnings and procedures are not being overlooked. The same principle applies to manuals that accompany tests and audio-visual materials.

Supplementary Textbooks. Supplementary texts can be used to enrich learning and to meet individual needs. It is usually

best to provide from one to five copies of each text and to insure that various levels of reading difficulty are represented. Both the room library and the school library should be checked for those that are appropriate for use in units of work, reading groups, remedial work, and other activities.

Materials for Independent Activities. Materials are needed for individual and group work carried out independently by chil-



Richmond, California

Materials for use in special fields are easy to make.

dren. Confer with the supervising teacher regarding the types customarily used in your class. Examples of materials frequently used in the elementary school are duplicated materials, workbooks, games, clay modeling, handcrafts, art work, and reading.

Special Materials. The supplies and equipment provided for use in science, construction, art, music, physical education, and household arts need to be checked individually. First, determine if any special rooms are provided. Second, list supplies and equipment that you can use with your class. Third, list materials that you can secure on your own. Fourth, check with your super-

vising teacher regarding items that children may bring from home (boxes, bottles, wire, pans, etc.).

Textbooks for Teachers. Consult professional textbooks frequently to secure information on materials and methods appropriate for use in your class. You will have become acquainted with several good texts in your courses preceding student teaching. Check others as specific problems arise in your classes. Your supervisor will help you locate particular references to secure information on individual problems. Take adequate notes for use in planning and keep a list of the most helpful references for future use.

Library Resources

A rich source of instructional materials sometimes overlooked in student teaching is the library. First, check the school library to determine the materials available for use in your class. The local library in the community is a rich supplementary source. It has excellent lending privileges for teachers, and regular services that you should encourage your pupils to use. In some states, lending services are available from the state library. Inquire about the best library services in your area. Determine the procedures for securing materials and select those that will help you in your teaching. The following suggestions have proved helpful to many student teachers:

1. Visit the library and check resources that you can use in student teaching:

- | | |
|-------------------|--|
| —Magazines | — <i>Rue Index Series</i> |
| —Newspapers | — <i>Horn Book Magazine</i> |
| —Pamphlets | — <i>Poetry Indexes</i> (Brewton or Granger) |
| —Pictures | — <i>Children's Catalog</i> |
| —Records | — <i>Cumulative Book Index</i> |
| —Clippings | — <i>Book Review Digest</i> |
| —Book lists | — <i>N. Y. Times Book Review</i> |
| —Bibliographies | — <i>American Yearbook</i> |
| —Atlases and maps | |

—Books of synonyms	— <i>Statesman's Yearbook</i>
—Yearbooks	— <i>Dictionary of American Biography</i>
—Dictionaries	— <i>Living Authors</i>
—Encyclopedias	— <i>Authors Today and Yesterday</i>
— <i>Who's Who</i>	— <i>Junior Book of Authors</i>
— <i>Reader's Guide</i>	— <i>Film Guide</i>
— <i>World Almanac</i>	— <i>Filmstrip Guide</i>
— <i>Biography Index</i>	—Others _____

Note library regulations and the location of basic references so that you can give clear and specific directions to your group.

2. Encourage children to use the library by calling their attention to pertinent materials, making specific assignments in related references, planning individual and group work in the library, arranging a meeting with the librarian, observing Book Week, arranging classroom exhibits of library materials, planning student evaluation of new materials, having book discussions, helping children select materials, arranging bulletin-board displays, and teaching library skills as needed (such as use of encyclopedias).

3. Discuss problems with the librarian and secure assistance in compiling reading lists, teaching library skills to children, locating new materials, finding pertinent reference material, and securing free and inexpensive materials.

Free and Inexpensive Materials

Types of free and inexpensive materials used by many teachers are pamphlets, magazine articles, posters, charts, bulletins, pictures, maps, and filmstrips. Such resources are valuable supplements to the materials typically provided in the school program. Check to see if such materials have been collected in your school. Good sources from which you may secure them are chambers of commerce, business firms, local, state, and federal governmental agencies, philanthropic and educational organizations, railroads, airlines, steamship companies, labor organizations, and consular offices of foreign governments. Remember that materials must



Become thoroughly acquainted with library resources so that you can guide pupils to use them more effectively.

Albany, California

be secured well ahead of the time you plan to use them. References that list free and inexpensive materials by topic or teaching field are:

Educators Index of Free Materials. Educators Progress Service, Randolph, Wisconsin.

Monthly Catalog, and Selected United States Government Publications. Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Publications, Washington, D. C.

The Vertical File Service Catalog. H. W. Wilson Company, New York.

Free and Inexpensive Materials. George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee.

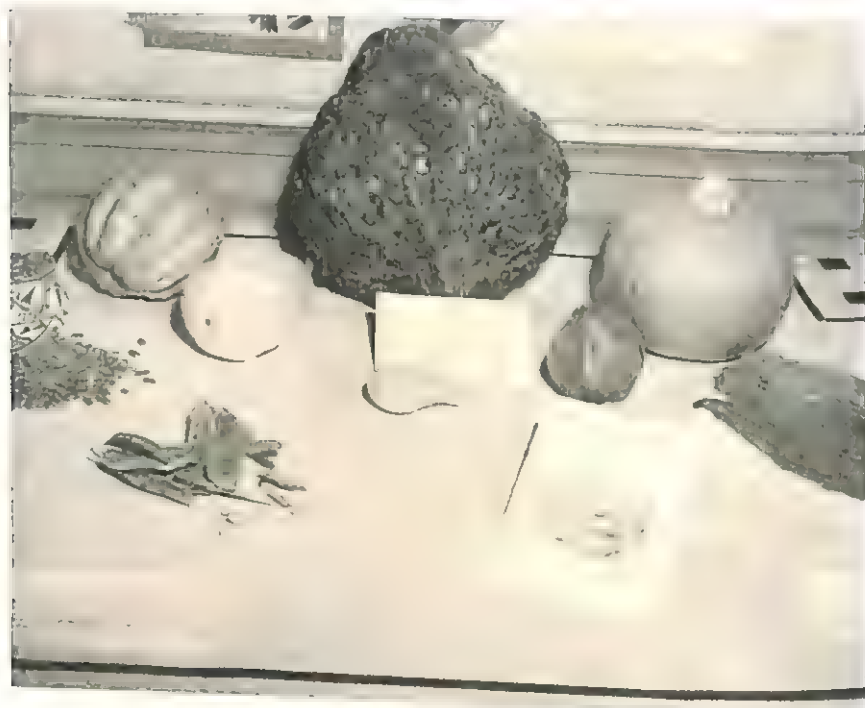


Free and inexpensive materials can be secured from a variety of sources.

When selecting free and inexpensive materials, give attention to the following criteria:

1. The information presented fits your program of instruction, is interesting and accurate, and cannot readily be obtained from other sources.
2. Mechanical features and illustrations meet high standards.

3. Advertising is kept at a minimum and is not objectionable in terms of school policies.
4. Concepts, vocabulary, and style of writing are appropriate to the mental level of your pupils.
5. Author, publisher, and date of publication are clearly indicated.
6. The sponsor is not promulgating doctrines or beliefs that run counter to basic principles of American democracy.



Education Workshop
University of California, Berkeley

Do not overlook seasonal resources in your survey of instructional materials.

Audio-visual Resources

Some audio-visual materials are available in the classroom; others may be in the school supply room or audio-visual collection; others may be in the audio-visual center of the school

system; still others may be available on loan or rental from the county school's office, state department, state university center, business firms, or commercial distribution centers. Leads to available materials may be secured by checking units of work and courses of study, by examining local lists or catalogs of audio-visual materials, and by checking catalogs of agencies from which films and other materials may be rented or borrowed. Confer with your supervising teacher and college supervisor to determine which sources may be used by student teachers. Be sure to learn the specific procedures for obtaining materials. By all means, adhere to established procedures for obtaining them, such as using requisition forms, using appropriate channels, and returning materials as directed. Place your orders early enough to insure that you will have them in time for use as planned.

The check list on page 48 is designed to serve as a guide to a quick survey of available resources. Questions that you should have in mind as you use it are: Which resources are available for use in student teaching? Which can I secure on my own? Which are appropriate for use in my work?

In addition to locating resources typically used in a particular school, many student teachers find it helpful to check magazines and other publications to determine other audio-visual materials that may be of value in their classes. Such a procedure is especially helpful when the supervising teacher wishes information on new materials. For example, *Social Education* presents the latest materials available for use in the social studies. *Elementary English* presents a good list of current materials each month, as well as materials for specific topics. There are also helpful yearbooks, such as *Audio-Visual Materials and Methods in the Social Studies* (National Council for the Social Studies, NEA, 1947). In fact, in each field of teaching, the publications of the national organization that represents the field carry information regarding new resources. In addition, attention may be given to the following guides:

Check List of Audio-visual Resources

Directions: Check local lists or catalogs of available resources and confer with your supervising teacher and college supervisor. Mark the check list as follows:

A—available for use

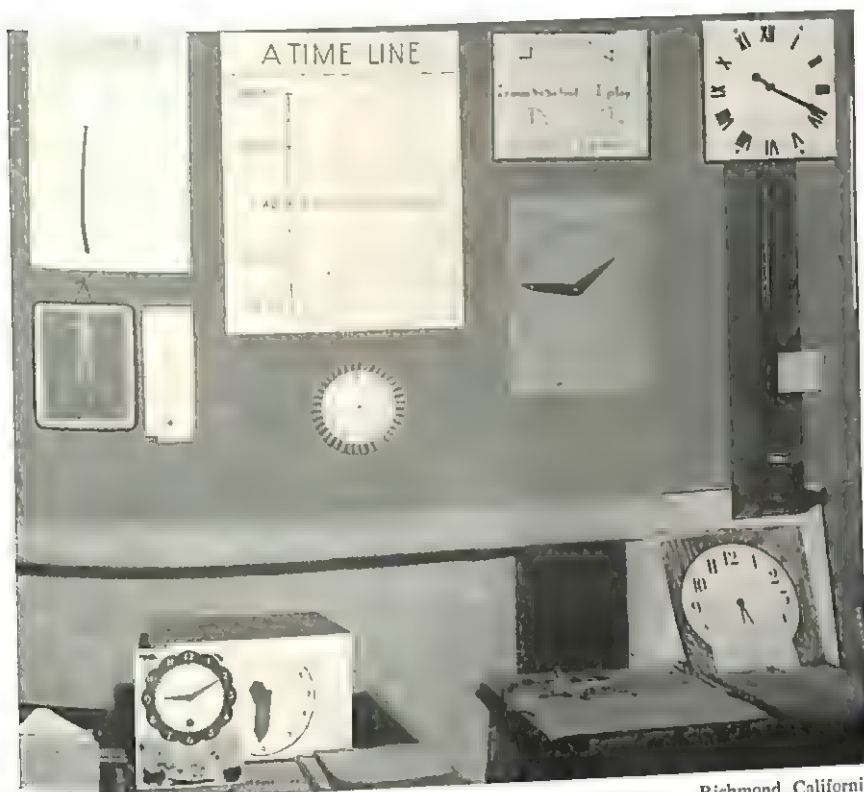
S—can secure myself

U—unavailable for use

?—must check availability

- | | | |
|---|--|---|
| 1. <input type="checkbox"/> Pictures | <input type="checkbox"/> Sketches | <input type="checkbox"/> Posters |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Photographs | <input type="checkbox"/> Postcards | <input type="checkbox"/> Albums |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Drawings | <input type="checkbox"/> Etchings | <input type="checkbox"/> Scrapbooks |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Cartoons | <input type="checkbox"/> Prints | <input type="checkbox"/> Pictorial statistics |
| 2. <input type="checkbox"/> Charts | <input type="checkbox"/> Graphs | <input type="checkbox"/> Diagrams |
| 3. <input type="checkbox"/> Slides | <input type="checkbox"/> Flannel board | <input type="checkbox"/> Stereographs |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Opaque projections | <input type="checkbox"/> Positive transparencies | <input type="checkbox"/> Micro-slides |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Filmstrips | | <input type="checkbox"/> Tachistoscope |
| 4. <input type="checkbox"/> Silent films | <input type="checkbox"/> Sound films | <input type="checkbox"/> Television |
| 5. <input type="checkbox"/> Records | <input type="checkbox"/> Transcriptions | <input type="checkbox"/> Radio: FM <input type="checkbox"/> AM <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. <input type="checkbox"/> Models | <input type="checkbox"/> Displays | <input type="checkbox"/> Museums |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Objects | <input type="checkbox"/> Collections | <input type="checkbox"/> Dioramas |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Specimens | <input type="checkbox"/> Miniature sets | <input type="checkbox"/> Panoramas |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Samples | <input type="checkbox"/> Relics | <input type="checkbox"/> Mockups |
| 7. <input type="checkbox"/> Maps | <input type="checkbox"/> Globes | <input type="checkbox"/> Atlases |
| 8. <input type="checkbox"/> Booklets | <input type="checkbox"/> Flashcards | <input type="checkbox"/> Clippings |
| 9. <input type="checkbox"/> Filmstrip projector | <input type="checkbox"/> Movie projector | <input type="checkbox"/> Telebinocular |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Slide projector | <input type="checkbox"/> Projection screen | <input type="checkbox"/> Voice recorder |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Opaque projector | <input type="checkbox"/> Stereoscope | <input type="checkbox"/> Record player: |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Overhead projector | | <input type="checkbox"/> Multi-speed; <input type="checkbox"/> 78 rpm; <input type="checkbox"/> 33 ¹ / ₃ rpm; <input type="checkbox"/> 45 rpm |
| 10. <input type="checkbox"/> Lettering devices | <input type="checkbox"/> Picture-mounting supplies | <input type="checkbox"/> Bookbinding supplies |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Map outlines | <input type="checkbox"/> Slide-making supplies | <input type="checkbox"/> Poster-making materials |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Pantograph | <input type="checkbox"/> Chart-making materials | <input type="checkbox"/> Others: _____ |
| 11. <input type="checkbox"/> Others _____ | | |

1. *Educational Film Guide*, H. W. Wilson Company. (Lists motion pictures; issued monthly and cumulated annually.)
2. *Filmstrip Guide*, H. W. Wilson Company. (Lists filmstrips; issued monthly and cumulated annually.)



Richmond, California

Be creative in making instructional materials for use with your group.

3. U. S. Office of Education, *Directory of 16 Millimeter Film Libraries*, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. (A directory by states and cities of libraries that lend or rent 16 millimeter films within the U. S.)
4. *See and Hear*. (A magazine with an annual fall inventory of new audio-visual material.)
5. Radio and television programs and bulletins. (Issued by broadcasting companies and some school systems.)

6. Commercial catalogs. (Catalogs are available on request from audio-visual companies; use one of the references at the end of this chapter if you need a list of companies.)

Remember too that many resources can be secured or made by student teachers themselves. Examples are pictures, posters, slides, maps and map outlines, models, simple apparatus, textiles, and clippings. Try to make a creative contribution to teaching by making or securing materials that especially fit the needs of your pupils. (See Chapter 11.)

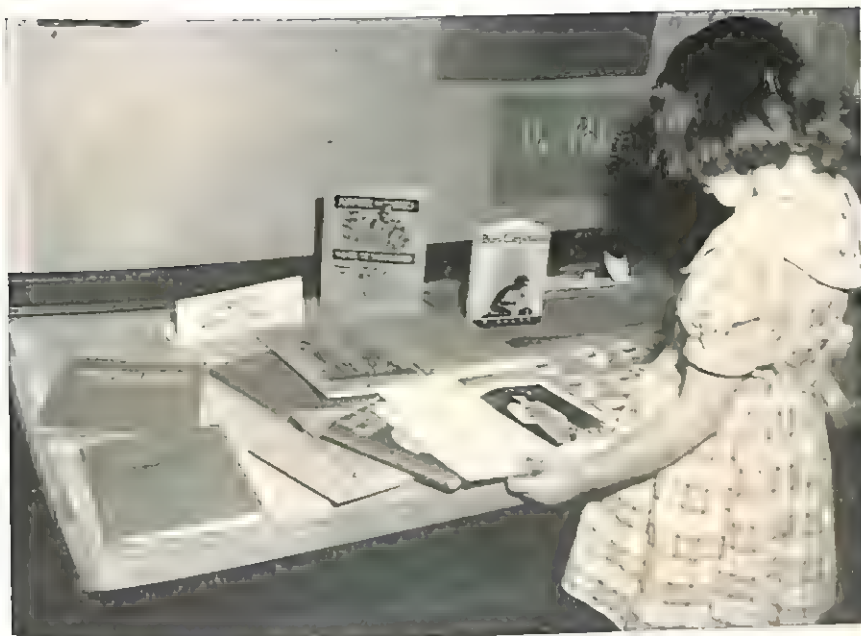
Community Resources. Every hamlet, town, and city in the country possesses resources that can be used in teaching. In some schools a list of valuable resources has been compiled. In others, they must be discovered by teachers themselves. Your supervising teacher and supervisor will suggest some resources. The following list indicates the community resources that are most frequently used:¹

- | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| __Field trips | __Service projects |
| __Resource visitors | __Surveys |
| __Persons to interview | __Recreational facilities |
| __Published materials | __Cooperating agencies |
| __Audio-visual materials | __Realia |
| __Camping | __Others _____ |

SELECTING DESIRABLE RESOURCES

After you have determined available resources, select those that are appropriate for use in your class. The selection of materials requires the use of specific criteria plus good common sense on your part. Only materials that contribute directly and efficiently to instructional purposes and that pupils can use effectively and meaningfully have a place in the program. There is too little time in the school day to clutter up instruction with

¹ See J. U. Michaelis, *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950, p. 224.



Albany, California

Select materials related to questions and problems that arise in your classes.



mere "busy work," whether it is meaningless drill or unrelated audio-visual resources.

Practical criteria for selecting materials are needed that can be used with a minimum expenditure of time. You can apply the criteria below to various types of resources by checking them before utilization. The controlling question is: Does the re-



Albany, California

The school neighborhood provides many excellent resources. This example of erosion could be used in a study of conservation.

source being considered meet the following criteria sufficiently to warrant its use?

Relevance. Is this resource related to questions, topics, problems, or purposes in your classes? Does it contain irrelevant promotional material?

Meaningfulness. Will it be meaningful and interesting to your pupils? Is it appropriate to their level of maturity and related to previous experience?

Content. Is content significant? Authentic? Biased?

Outcomes. What specific outcomes can be secured?

Attitudes _____
Appreciations _____
Understandings _____
Information _____
Skills _____

Relative Value. Are the outcomes to be secured worth the time and effort required? Are there other materials that can be used more effectively?

Feasibility. Is it usable in terms of: time limitations? room arrangements? available equipment? your ability to use it properly?

Mechanical Qualities. Is it well made and free of distracting elements (such as blemishes on slides, poor photography or sound on films)?

Some materials will not need to be appraised in terms of the criteria above. Certain materials will have been appraised by others and recommended in local teaching units or courses of study; others may be suggested by your supervising teacher or college supervisor. These you should utilize after you have previewed them and made specific plans for their use.

Summary

The sooner you become acquainted with your teaching situation, the sooner you will be able to take the class on your own. But remember that continuous study of classroom techniques, children, instructional resources, and the community is essential. Keep up to date on new materials, school policies, community developments, and growth and change in children. As you participate in classroom activities preliminary to actual teaching, anticipate and prepare charts, work materials for children, and other resources that will be of assistance to the supervising teacher. Keep brief notes on school policies, library resources, audio-visual materials, and free and inexpensive materials that are pertinent in your planning. Select only those resources that meet the needs of your group. Do not overlook community resources and the impact of community activities upon the lives of children.

This chapter has given attention to topics that should be studied carefully in preparation for actual teaching. As you observe classroom practices, participate in classroom activities, and study the community, you are at the same time learning a great deal about the children in your group. In the next chapter, detailed consideration is given to specific principles and techniques for use in studying children. The suggestions presented therein will be helpful to you in getting acquainted with the individuals and groups in your class.

Suggestions for Further Reading

- Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Toward Better Teaching*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1949. Chapter II deals with the development of security, confidence, and satisfaction on the part of children; grouping, use of skills, and role of teacher are discussed concretely and practically.
- Burr, J. B., L. W. Harding, and L. B. Jacobs, *Student Teaching in the Elementary School*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950. Chapters II and III offer specific suggestions for preliminary observation and participation.
- Burton, William H., *The Guidance of Learning Activities*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952. Presents basic principles of learning and teaching, with specific applications; Chapter VIII discusses the social climate of the classroom and the child as a member of the group.
- Gans, Roma, C. B. Stendler, and Millie Almy, *Teaching Young Children*. New York: World Book Company, 1952. Chapter XIV discusses school organization for the young child; good suggestions on grouping.
- Heffernan, Helen (ed.), *Guiding the Young Child*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1951. Chapters II, III, and IV offer practical suggestions for the kindergarten teacher, with descriptions of actual practices.
- Olsen, E. D. (ed.), *School and Community Programs*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949. Specific examples of community resources and ways in which they have been used successfully.
- Otto, H. J., *Principles of Elementary Education*. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1949. Chapter III discusses the educative environment of the elementary-school child; Chapter IX discusses the organization of the school program.
- Wofford, Kate V., *Teaching in Small Schools*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946. Chapter XV presents practical methods of community study that are applicable in both rural and urban areas.

3

Studying Your Children

TO TEACH children, you must know them. You must know each child as an individual and as a member of the various groups in which he works, including groups in the classroom, the school, the home—in fact, in the whole community. A child may appear quite different doing research in the public library than he does at the Saturday matinee. What is more, information about children is more meaningful when you yourself play a prominent part in discovering it. When the information has merely been passed along to you, you will seldom be able to grasp its full meaning. This means that you yourself will need to study your children if you are to use effectively the information at your disposal. Even though you will be unable to make a thorough study of each child in your room, concentrated attention on a limited number of learners will increase your efficiency in working with the others.

As a student teacher, then, you might well resolve to make careful studies of two or three of the children in your group and to make a survey study of the total group. You may make one study first, or carry them both on simultaneously. In either event, you will get valuable practice in using the techniques of studying children and, more important, you will assemble information about your children that will enable you to teach them more effectively.

This chapter is designed to help you understand the various techniques you will need. The discussions are not exhaustive, however, nor are all possible techniques listed. You may wish to refer to the references at the end of the chapter for additional

help. The suggestions given should acquaint you with a sufficient number and variety of methods to enable you to obtain a clear picture of most situations. Choose the specific techniques that seem most promising at any given time.



Berkeley

A careful study of individual children will make you more competent in working with all the children in your group.

AN INTENSIVE STUDY OF SELECTED CHILDREN

For your intensive study of two or three children, you will probably select those in whom you have a keen interest and who appear to be somewhat different from their fellows. Use the techniques that will, in your judgment, be most productive of useful information about these children. Then use what you

have discovered about the children to make their learning more effective. In each of these phases, your supervising teacher will be of great help. Seek his counsel both on the methods you are considering, and on the children you are planning to study.

Selecting Children for Careful Study. Although no two children are alike, knowing a great deal about children in general will help you to choose those to whom you will give special attention and to plan what you will do to make your study of most value. You should, for example, take care to study "normal" children as well as the "problem" children who cause you the most trouble. Be concerned about the fast learners. Note also the shy child, the withdrawing child, the aggressive child, and the undernourished child. Ask yourself, "What can I learn about these children that will help me teach them more effectively?" Your answer, of course, will depend in large part on what you expect children to be like.

Starting the Study

Just where to begin is often one of the hardest problems in making a study. The more you know about children in general, the easier it will be for you to make a decision.

An important determinant of your attitudes toward children is how well you understand the manner in which they develop. Here again, all children do not follow the same patterns, nor do they develop at the same rate. But there are certain basic principles of development that will guide you in your consideration of children. Jersild has stated these principles in a way that you should find very usable. They may be summarized as follows: ¹

1. *Levels of Maturity*—The outcome of normal development is increasing maturity. At any phase of his growth a child may be regarded both as a mature and an immature creature.

2. *Learning and Growth*—The development of behavior proceeds through the influence of two factors—learning and growth.

¹ Arthur T. Jersild and Associates, *Child Development and the Curriculum*, Pp. 8-34. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946.

Learning [is] any change in behavior which takes place by virtue, in part, of past experience. Growth [is] the biological changes which take place within the organism as the organism progresses toward maturity.

3. *Direction and Form of Development*—The outcomes of changes during the course of development appear in many forms—a body becomes bigger, a mind may master increasingly complex tasks, a skill is refined.

4. *Developmental Pace*—The pace of development tends to be most rapid at its starting point and to slow down with the passage of time, particularly in childhood.

5. *The Concept of Developmental Pre-eminence*—Although development is continuous, certain of its aspects are pre-eminent at various periods in the life span.

6. *Indigenous Motivation as a Feature of Growing Ability*—Associated with the development of a capacity or power is the impulse to use that capacity or power.

7. *The Principle of Anticipation*—Throughout the growth span the process of development constantly involves preparations for the future. The changes which occur in the course of growth not only have a bearing on the present but also establish the foundation for developments that lie ahead.

8. *Vicarious Extension of Experience*—From an early age the child is able to encompass experiences reaching far beyond conditions with which he has physical contact. . . .

9. *"Laying by" or Shedding as a Feature of Development*—Development takes place not merely through the process of accretion, or the refinement of earlier forms of behavior, or through the emergence of new and different forms of behavior, but also through the sloughing off of features which were appropriate to an earlier day but are no longer useful.

10. *Developmental Revision of Habits*—As the child develops, there is a revision of the habits that he has acquired.

11. *Interaction Between Various Aspects of Growth*—While various components of an individual's makeup have a developmental course of their own and proceed with a certain degree of

independence, [there is an] interacting [between various aspects of growth].

12. *The Play of Complementary and Potentially Conflicting Forces*—From the time of birth the child shows motives which, when viewed in isolation, seem to be opposed or conflicting [e.g., dependence—independence: self-centered—out-going].

13. *Early Establishment of Basic Features of Personality*—Characteristics and qualities which distinguish each human being from all others, and which go into the making of what we call personality, are manifest in early infancy [and] tend to show a high degree of persistence and consistency with increasing age.

Since you probably have studied these principles in earlier courses, we will not discuss them here. If time allows, however, you would do well to review them, for the "why" of much of the activity of children in your room will become clearer if you understand the applications of these principles.

These general principles of development operate in greater or less degree in the lives of all children. Consequently, we can compile "tables of expectancies," indicating what we may expect children to be like at various developmental levels. References to such information will give you a good start on your study. For example, if you are a teacher of Grade II, the following statement will help you understand your children:²

The seven-year-old . . . learns better if he is encouraged to be active while he learns. He counts more easily and effectively if he has objects to move. He understands better if he can make things in a sandbox or take some part in other projects. Abstract thinking is barely beginning. He wants to use his hands, explore things through them. He enjoys painting, clay modeling, and carpentry and is learning to handle tools well.

This is a single paragraph from a chapter on seven-year-olds. Although no single child in your room will fit the full description given, reference to such materials should give you clues to

² Gladys Gardner Jenkins, Helen Shacter, William W. Bauer, *These Are Your Children*, p. 64. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1949.

what is important for you to study and to the relative development of the children in your care.

After you have learned what children are like, the next step is learning their needs. Several excellent lists of children's needs are available in various publications. Here is a list of eight basic needs developed in the 1949 Summer Work Conference at the United States Office of Education:

Need for belonging—If a child is absent for a day or two, do call his home. Don't ignore a child's absence. When you criticize, criticize the work—the specific thing wrong—not the personality.

Need for achievement—Reward children with a feeling of satisfaction of their own accomplishment. Don't reward achievement with material things. Help the child to learn how to accept disappointment. Don't stress the value of winning in every situation.

Need for freedom from fear—Where a child shows embarrassment and it is having a bad effect, rush in and take some of the blame yourself. Don't threaten a child with failure in order to force compliance.

Need for love and affection—Show the child you like him; be hurt, if the child is hurt; sympathize with him. Don't reject any child. Don't brush off a child's hurt or try to minimize it if he needs sympathy.

Need for freedom from guilt—Let the child know that in our society so many new rules are made that it is hard for children to know about them; even grownups don't know about all of them. Help the child to minimize unpleasant past behavior; enable him to make a better choice in the future. Don't give the child the idea that anybody is perfect.

Need for sharing—Make something of the child's contribution, no matter how small. Get across to the student the idea that one may share by following. Don't ridicule or minimize a child's contribution.

Need for understanding and knowledge—Provide an atmosphere in which students may raise questions which bother them. Don't give the children the idea that there are some questions which

must not be raised in class. Take seriously questions which are called "naive." Don't tell the child that he is too young or too stupid to understand a controversial problem.

Need for economic security—Be considerate in pressing requests for contributions. Never announce the names of children who did or did not contribute to a fund.

As you study this list, ask yourself which children in your room seem to have shown certain of these needs and which ones have not.

After you have become acquainted with children in general, and particularly with children of the ages included in your student-teaching assignment, you should be ready to select the children whom you intend to study intensively.

Methods and Techniques for Your Study

Following your selection of the children you will study intensively, you must plan how to proceed. Choose from the following techniques those that seem likely to give you the information you need. On the basis of the clues they provide, decide which techniques to use next. Record and organize your findings carefully as you proceed.

1. *The cumulative record* may well be your first source of help. On this form you will find pertinent data about each child, his family, and his school history. Note facts concerning the child's age, address, members in his family, and his health record. Become familiar with his school progress, the various schools he has attended, results of tests administered to him, and important comments by former teachers.

Your study of a child's cumulative record should help you orient yourself to the child. Try not to look for answers; rather, try to gain insight and clues for your further investigation.

2. *Health data* concerning the child merit your close attention. Often the school nurse will help you interpret his health record, reports on various examinations, and his physical-growth record. She may also help you to understand his attendance

record, and his record of medical care. Your goal is to relate these data to the child's learning program.

3. *Test data*, which are often quite extensive, will generally be available to you in the child's cumulative record. You are indeed fortunate if the results listed here are from at least four kinds of tests: mental tests, achievement tests, diagnostic tests, and personality or adjustment tests or inventories.

The results of the *mental tests* often will be recorded as intelligence quotients (I.Q.). Remember that the I.Q. is really a quotient, obtained by sampling what the child has learned (to secure his M.A.), and then by dividing this by his chronological age. In using it, you will want to ask yourself whether the child has had the "average" experience for a child of his age and whether he will continue to live in the same environment he has known in the past. If your answer to both questions is an unqualified "Yes," you may use the I.Q. as a fair indication of the achievement that can be expected of the child in an average learning program.

Note, too, the test used to secure the child's M.A. Results from individually administered tests are more likely to be correct for individual children and should be given more credence than scores from a group-administered test. As a matter of fact, if you have reason to doubt the recorded M.A., your supervising teacher may want to request that a skilled person re-test the child.

Achievement test scores based on standardized tests will give you a general picture of the educational development of your children. These tests sample the various curriculum areas and give a quick survey of the children's learning. Achievement is generally reported in terms of grade levels. Detailed instructions for giving the tests accompany them. If recent scores are not available, you may administer these tests yourself, with your supervising teacher's approval.

Although most achievement tests indicate general educational development, *diagnostic tests* show the points at which various

children are experiencing difficulty in the area tested. They reveal specifically what things the child has not yet learned or needs to learn in this particular area.

You may wish to administer a diagnostic test if you are trying to find the exact problem confronting a child in such areas as reading, arithmetic, writing, or study skills. To supplement this information, or at times to substitute for it, you may find a few teaching techniques effective. Asking a pupil to do certain processes "out loud" for you and giving a child careful attention as he does his work often yield clues on the "what" and the "why" of his particular difficulties. Then you can discover when and how often these difficulties occur by making a careful check of the pupil's work.

Student teachers often turn to *personality* or *adjustment test* data to help children whose school achievement appears to be quite satisfactory but who seem not to be developing as well-adjusted individuals. In the *California Test of Personality*, for example, the child reveals how he is getting along with himself and with others. On this test, one fourth-grade child drew twenty distinguishable circles around the "Yes" following this item: "Do you sometimes feel like running away from home?"³ Investigation showed that the father actually had wanted to get rid of the son ever since he was born. You will need to recognize when such situations affect the child's learning program.

Another excellent method of obtaining personal adjustment data is to use a scale on which you mark items that describe the child's conduct. Such a scale will help you to objectify your ideas of what the child is like and also to get a broader picture of his personality.

4. *Teacher comments* on how the child has previously fared in school will often give you valuable clues. Recorded remarks may show that by the third or fourth grade a given child has achieved a reputation for not being promoted, or for not trying

³ Louis P. Thorpe, Ernest W. Tiegs, and Willis W. Clark, *California Test of Personality—Elementary, Form A*. Los Angeles: California Test Bureau, 1942.

to do his work, or for being unwelcome to classroom teachers. Or comments may show a pupil has always tried hard and has made steady progress.

The picture you obtain by reviewing the child's development over several years is valuable in giving you perspective when you interpret and use your data.



San Diego

Observation of children gives practical insights into growth characteristics at various levels of development.

5. *Observational data* provide you with a knowledge of what each child is doing from day to day. Data of this kind are most frequently recorded in an anecdotal record or behavior journal. You will record short descriptions or anecdotes concerning the observed child's behavior. Here is an example of such an anecdote:⁴

⁴ Theodore L. Torgerson, *Studying Children*, p. 103. New York: The Dryden Press, 1947.

October 22, Anecdote (on Richard _____):

A student teacher asked Richard to join the rest of the group for conversation when she found him wandering about in the next room. He walked over to the opposite side of the room and proceeded to page through a book. He glanced up at the student teacher several times, paged some more, slowly laid the book down, and joined the group.

Note that the entry includes the date, the situation, and a description of what the child actually did (or what happened). Notice too that there is no interpretation of the behavior. Such a clear, concise entry will, along with other day-to-day entries and other data, enable you to make wiser interpretations of a child's actions.

6. *Interest inventories* will give you additional information. The following inventory "was mimeographed and a copy placed before each child (in certain rooms at Robberson School) with instructions to check each activity that he liked."⁵

Interest Inventory Used by Robberson School

- | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| a. Radio Programs | d. Hobbies |
| (1) Musical programs | (1) Hiking, excursions |
| (2) Serials | (2) Scientific experiments |
| (3) News | (3) Handwork |
| (4) Plays | (4) Collections |
| (5) Quiz programs | (5) Creative writing |
| b. Reading | (6) Dramatizations |
| (1) To learn something | (7) Drawing and painting |
| (2) Comic books | |
| (3) Other books | e. Movies |
| (4) Newspapers, magazines | (1) Comedies |
| (5) Aloud to others | (2) Western |
| (6) Listen to others | (3) All other kinds |
| c. Play | f. Organizations |
| (1) Outdoor games in groups | (1) Sunday school |
| (2) Outdoor games alone | (2) Scouts |
| (3) Indoor games in groups | (3) Camp fire |
| (4) Indoor games alone | (4) Other groups |

⁵ Springfield, Missouri, Public Schools, "Reading in the Elementary Curriculum," *Language Arts Bulletin* No. 2. June, 1952, pp. 52-53.

g. Some Things You Like To Do at Home

- (1) Care for pets
- (2) Run errands
- (3) House work
- (4) Outside chores
- (5) Jobs to earn money

h. Trips You Like To Take

- (1) Visiting
- (2) Sightseeing

i. Music

- (1) Practice
- (2) Sing
- (3) Listen

7. *Projective methods.* Sometimes you may want to go beyond the recorded facts in order to learn how a child feels about himself and others and the things around him. In such cases, you may guide him to project himself and his feelings in a variety of ways.

The child's own estimate of himself sometimes can be quickly and easily obtained through the use of an *autobiography*. As he writes about himself, he will include those things which, according to his own standards, have most value. His manner of reporting their significance and their relation to each other as he sees them should give you many clues about the kind of person he thinks he is.

Another, quite different, way of discovering what a child thinks of himself and the world about him is the technique illustrated by *The Springfield Interest Finder*, which follows. Note that the eleven sections invite the child to project himself ("My three wishes," for example), to evaluate school, to indicate his objectives, and to evaluate his past.

*Springfield Interest Finder*⁶

Name _____ Boy or Girl _____
 Age _____ Teacher _____
 Grade _____ School _____
 Date _____

My three wishes:

What I don't care to study about:

What I'd like to learn more about at school:

⁶ Arthur T. Jersild and Ruth J. Tasch, *Children's Interests and What They Suggest for Education*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949.

What I like best in school:

What I like best outside school (that is, away from school, when I'm not at school):

What I like least at school:

What I like least outside school (that is, away from school, when I'm not at school):

What I want to be or do when I grow up:

The most interesting thing I have done at school during the past week or so:

One of the places I especially like to go in _____:

One of the happiest days in my life:

Quite often a single projective technique is used by itself. For example, children may tell a great deal about themselves when they are asked simply to indicate "three wishes." The sixth-grade child who listed these three wishes certainly revealed a good bit about himself:⁷

1. To live with my father and step-mother.
2. To get out of the city and go to the country.
3. That I would be nice and be able to make friends.

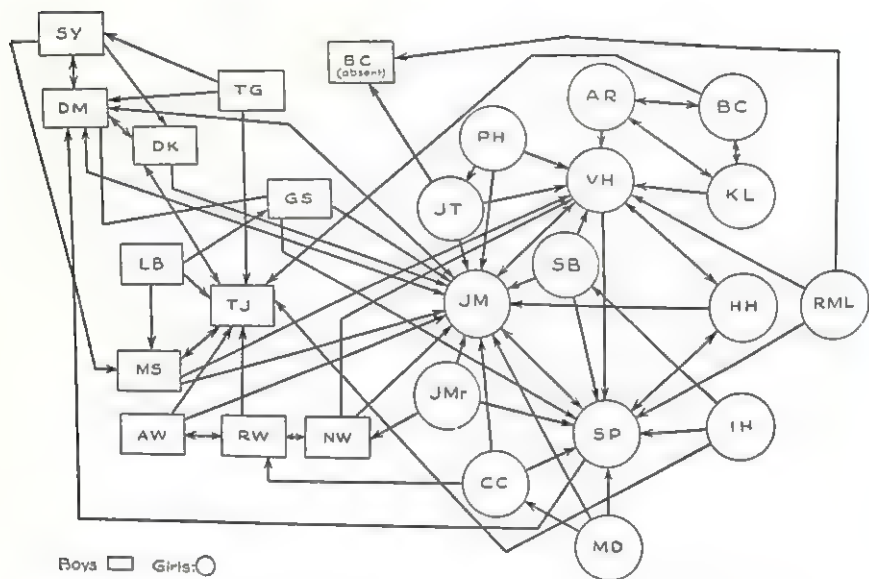
But here is a word of caution on the use of projective techniques. Take care that you do not set up undue introspection on the part of the pupils. Further, the ease of administering such simple tests as the *Three Wishes*, *The Uncompleted Sentence*, *If I Had One Hundred Dollars*, and *What I'm Going To Be When I Grow Up* often belies the difficulty of interpreting the results. Moreover, complex tests such as the Rorschach and the Thematic Apperception Test⁸ should be recommended and administered only by a fully qualified person.

8. *Sociometric techniques* are designed primarily to give a picture of the child as a member of a group. As student teacher, you will want to explore the use of some of the newer sociometric

⁷ From an unpublished study by teachers at the University Elementary School, University of California, Berkeley.

⁸ For information on these and other tests, see O. K. Buros, *The Third Mental Measurements Yearbook*. New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University, 1949.

techniques. They will help you to gain valuable knowledge of the child's status with his peers, to discover those children who need help in peer relationships, and ultimately to help you work out better groupings in the classroom. In using these techniques, ask the children clear questions that will draw forth specific information. A child's choice of the classmate with whom he'd like to walk on an excursion, the person next to whom he'd like



Sociogram showing best friends, three choices, in a fourth-grade class.

to sit, or the person with whom he'd like to make a report may be suitable questions for a sociometric study. However, always be careful not to create situations that will cause sensitive children to worry about your motives.

The sociogram above shows the reaction of a group of fourth-grade children to the question, "Who are your three best friends in this room?" To chart the results, the teacher simply placed on the paper a circle for each girl and a square for each boy, with the most frequently chosen persons nearest the center. Arrows from the choosers to the chosen complete the picture.

Mutual choices are shown by double arrows. Here are examples of what can be learned from this sociogram:

1. J. M. is easily the most popular of all the children, since she was chosen most often by both boys and girls.
2. J. M. is chosen by every person whom she chooses (V. H., S. B., and S. P.), hence mutual regards are indicated.
3. M. D. (girl) and L. B. (boy) are not chosen by a single classmate, indicating needs for building common interests as bonds for closer relationships.

Of course, many other facts can be learned from the chart. Although these facts should never be isolated from the total picture, they can add much to the information already at hand.

Role playing is being used more and more to supplement sociometric data both in discovering information and in planning subsequent experiences. In a puppet play of a family watching television, or a mock meeting for choosing a game captain, a child will often forget himself and, in playing the role assigned, will reveal his true feelings and reactions.

9. A *cultural study* of children is somewhat more difficult to conduct. Before you undertake it, be sure that both children and parents are convinced that it will be worth while. In such a study, you will try to ferret out the cultural influences that affect a child's learning. You may include items concerning home discipline, community health standards, parental habits, relations between children and parents, language, aspirations of parents for their children, and even child nutrition.

You may find that what is expected of a child in his own world often has more effect on his behavior than what he is taught at school.

10. *Interviews and conferences.* You can learn a great deal about a child simply by talking with people who know most about him—his former teachers and his parents, for example.

In discussing a child with another teacher, try to discover what specific information the teacher has that will help you teach the child. Be sure to check first to make sure that the teacher has time to spare for a personal conversation.

A carefully planned conference with a child's parents at school or a visit to the home on invitation (your supervising teacher will probably accompany you) can be productive if you encourage the parents to do most of the talking. You and the parents, working together, can pool what you know about the child so that together you can plan a better educational program for him.



Los Angeles

Study the behavior of children in a variety of situations.

Informal interviews with the child himself are sometimes the most rewarding interviews of all. A chat with the child while he helps you after school, or sits next to you in the auditorium, or simply stops for a few words in the hall or on the playground may provide the key to many difficult situations. Consider, for example, this interview, recorded in *The NEA Journal*:⁹

⁹ A. J. Foy Cross, "Tragicomedy," *Journal of the National Education Association*, 38:8 (November, 1949), p. 637.

It was after school, and red-haired Jerry had just finished cleaning the boards for Miss Jones. "Why can't you be like this during school hours?" asked the teacher as she placed her arm about the shoulders of the little fellow who caused 90% of her prematurely gray hairs. "You're an entirely different person after school. You seem really to want to be friendly and helpful."

Turning half-tearful eyes that two hours before had flashed undaunted defiance to the stern commands of his teacher, Jerry replied, "Ain't it funny, Miss Jones—I was just thinkin' the same thing about you."

11. The *case study* of a child includes all the previously described information, plus reports on what happens when you attempt to use that information. You will need to organize your findings, seek counsel on how to use them, and record the results of your efforts.

Here are the categories used for organizing information in one case study:¹⁰

Identifying data

What do we know about the family and J_____’s attitude to them: (Family constellation, the parents, the siblings)

Work behavior

Outstanding trends and problem tendencies (behavior toward other children, tendency toward fantastic stories)

Evaluation by children through Guess Who Test

Simple categories such as these help you to point up your findings. As you gain skill, you will probably want to use a more detailed outline, such as the one that follows:¹¹

1. Organic factors that influence growth, development, and behavior
 - a. Health: disease history, corrected and uncorrected defects, nutrition, health habits
 - b. Characteristic rate of energy output; quality of physical endurance and recovery from fatigue

¹⁰ American Council on Education, Commission on Teacher Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children*, p. 92. Washington: The Council, 1945.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 431-432.

- c. Growth history, present maturity level, and rate of growth
- d. Skill in managing body: physical attractiveness
- 2. Relationships to others, social roles, and family status
 - a. Social roles of family members in the community
 - b. Interpersonal relations with the family, past and present
 - c. Child's interaction and relations with peers
 - d. Child's interaction and relations with adults outside the family
- 3. The child as a developing self
 - a. Conceptions about physical and social processes; his attitudes toward them
 - b. Conceptions of aesthetic and ethical principles; his attitudes toward them
 - c. Skill in using symbols in thinking and communication
 - d. Patterns of emotional behavior; situations that evoke them
 - e. Common defense mechanisms
 - f. Present adjustment problems
 - g. Developmental history and present developmental tasks
 - h. Basic evaluation of himself as a physical being, as an object of love, as a social being, and as a "self"
 - i. Values and aspirations
- 4. Summary: the child's major assets and needs
 - a. As a physical being
 - b. As to personal relations with others
 - c. As to social roles
 - d. As to experience, knowledge, and skills
 - e. As to attitudes, values, and aspirations
 - f. As to his evaluation of himself
 - g. In relation to his adjustment problems and developmental tasks

After you have completed your organized study, and after you have made some tentative interpretations, you will be ready to seek counsel from your supervising teacher. With his help, you can try to work out an answer to the question, "How will what we now know help us in teaching this child?" Specific suggestions that should help you to answer this question make up the

last section of this chapter; they are discussed in greater detail in later chapters.



Albany, California

Learn about children as they engage in independent activities.

STUDYING THE TOTAL GROUP

Before discussing the uses of the data you have assembled on individual children, however, let us consider briefly methods of studying the total group. As we suggested earlier, studying a few children intensively will help you develop techniques for study. Let us take an inventory of the information you already have, or to which you have quick access.

First, you are conversant with *how children develop, their characteristics* at the age at which you are their teacher, and *their needs*.

Second, you have worked with *cumulative records* so that you

can gather quickly the ages, family facts, health data, test records, and school progress records of all your children.

Third, you have in hand, or know how to obtain, instruments that can be used to secure *data concerning the personality* of each child.



Albany, California

Discover children's interests by observing them as they explore and investigate materials in the classroom.

Fourth, you have, or can obtain, an inventory of the *interests* of each child in your room.

Fifth, you can secure information on a *child's wishes, his reactions to school, and his thoughts about his past experience.*

Sixth, you can identify, by means of sociometric techniques, the *child's place among his peers.*

CHILD STUDY WORKSHEET

Room Number _____

Date _____

Name	Age (Sept.)	I.Q.	Achievement Levels (Educational Grade)							Adjustment	Sociometric	Interests	Comments
			Total	Rdg.	Arith.	Spell.	Lang.	Soc. Stu.	Other				
H.F.	9-6	190	6.0	6.7	5.4	6.0	6.1	6.2	5.8 (Sci.)	Excellent	Frequently chosen as class leader	Reading Collecting dolls	Needs challenging work
D.W.	9-3	104	3.9	4.0	3.8	3.8	4.2	4.0	3.9 (Sci.)	Quiet, tend- ency to withdraw	Average	Bluebirds	Works best with much encourage- ment

Because you have already used such information in your careful study of a selected group of children, you will recognize interrelationships, the need for objectivity, and the need for suspending final judgment. With this orientation, you may profitably make a quick-reference worksheet for all the children in



Berkeley

In group experiences, children reveal social sensitivity and their ability to get along with others.

your class. Such a sheet has severe limitations, but it will serve as a constant reminder to you that you are teaching children. An example of such a worksheet, with a few sample entries, appears on p. 75.

You also may wish to add a short description of the working situation in the room. Include such items as the children's range

of abilities, range and concentration of interests, an estimate of the relationships existing in the total group, the number of children and the available space, the amount and range of learning materials, and the adaptability of furniture and equipment to the learning program.

Putting Your Study to Work in Your Teaching

The success of your study of the children depends on how useful it is in improving your teaching. In general, the chapters that follow are descriptions of ways in which you can put this material to work. While you still have the process of studying children in mind, however, you should consider the following suggested uses.

Using child-study information to develop security in meeting classroom situations. You can often make a great contribution to the welfare of the children in your room simply by knowing when and about what to be concerned. When you know what to expect, you are in a much better position to make the most of each learning situation than when you are surprised and upset by unexpected behavior among the children. You will be better able to help each child make satisfying adjustments.

Using child-study information in planning the learning program. Learning plans must be based on a knowledge of the children you are to teach. Knowing your children will affect the content of your teaching, how it is to be presented, who is to do what, and what you and the children can hope to achieve.

Using child-study information to make adjustments in the learning program. To make practical applications of the knowledge you have gained calls for considerable adjustment in the learning program. To use each child's time efficiently, you will want to teach him what he does not know. You will want to start "where he is" and help him to move ahead *continuously*. As a result of your teaching, he should learn something of value that he did not know previously.

To insure optimum learning, you need to identify the *techniques of teaching* best suited to each child. Not all children re-

spond in the same way to a given technique. You can make intelligent decisions on which you will use only when you know how the children in your class learn. Teach each child (or group of similar children) according to the methods best suited to his learning habits.

You will find *learning materials* of many varieties available to you, differing in content, purpose, difficulty, and attractiveness. Each must be chosen on the basis of its value to particular children. As far as you can, tailor each child's materials to his specific learning needs.

Both *group instruction* and *individual instruction* will be required in your room. Some children learn best by working together. Others require individual instruction and opportunities for independent work. Your knowledge of the children will help you meet these individual needs.

Using child-study information to improve personal relations. Many people feel that one of the greatest responsibilities of the teacher is to help children learn to live together. How much you contribute to improving interpersonal relations will depend on your knowledge of how children get along with their peers, and the causes of these relationships. One test of the effectiveness of your teaching will be your contribution to the citizenship of the children in your care.

Using child-study information to help children in activities associated with, but not altogether a part of, the school. What you have learned about each child is particularly valuable in helping him with all his problems of adjustment to people, places, and things. You can guide him toward satisfactory solutions only if you know him.

Using child-study information to meet the special needs of individual children. Every child has special needs. Knowing these needs in time to meet them is a very important part of teaching. Timely encouragement to a child who needs a sense of belonging, or a friendly word of advice to a child who feels alone with his problems, may be the touch that sets in motion worthwhile personality development.

Using child-study information to make referrals. Infrequently, you will note children whose problems seem beyond your powers of diagnosis and assistance. As a result of the clues provided by your study, you may want to consult the nurse or doctor, the school psychologist, or the social-welfare specialist.



Univ. Ele. School
U.C.L.A.



Ventura County

Expect a wide range of individual differences among children in all types of activities.

Or you may decide to plan with the child for participation in the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, or other community organizations from which he may receive help. You will want to develop a sensitivity to children's needs so that you will realize when help beyond your own is needed.

Summary

Effective teaching is possible only if the studied needs, interests, abilities, and achievements of children are used in plan-

ning and developing the instructional program. The intensive study of a few children provides insights into child development that can be secured in no other way. Principles of development, basic needs of children, and information about the growth characteristics of children provide a background for studying a particular group of children and for interpreting data about them. Cumulative records, health and medical records, tests, interest inventories, case studies, anecdotal records, and data gleaned from direct observation of children are helpful in studying a given class. Information about the children in a particular group should be organized on a worksheet for quick and easy reference.

After data are collected and organized, they should be put to use. Major uses include individual and group guidance, planning, selecting materials, adjusting the program of instruction and co-curricular activities, and making referrals to specialists. The next two chapters give attention to planning; subsequent chapters deal with discipline, group processes, needs of exceptional children, and other problems that require data about children.

Suggestions for Further Reading

- American Council on Education, Commission on Teacher Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children*. Washington: The Council, 1945. Report of a child-study program with teachers.
- Buhler, Charlotte, Faith Smitter, and Sybil Richardson, *Childhood Problems and the Teacher*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1952. Help in studying special problems of children.
- Jenkins, Gladys Gardner, Helen Shacter, and William W. Bauer, *These Are Your Children*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1949. Presents characteristics of children at various ages.
- Jersild, Arthur T., *Child Psychology*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947. Thorough treatment of information on the psychology of children.
- Jersild, Arthur T., and Associates, *Child Development and the Curriculum*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947. Brings together the facts on child development and what we can do to apply them in curriculum development.

- Jersild, Arthur T., and Ruth J. Tasch, *Children's Interests and What They Suggest for Education*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949. Reports results of studies of children's interests.
- Ohio State University, Faculty of University School. *How Children Develop*. Columbus: Ohio State University, 1946. A summary study on characteristics of children at various developmental levels.
- Torgerson, Theodore L., *Studying Children*. New York: The Dryden Press, 1947. Presents detailed information on how the teacher can obtain information on children.

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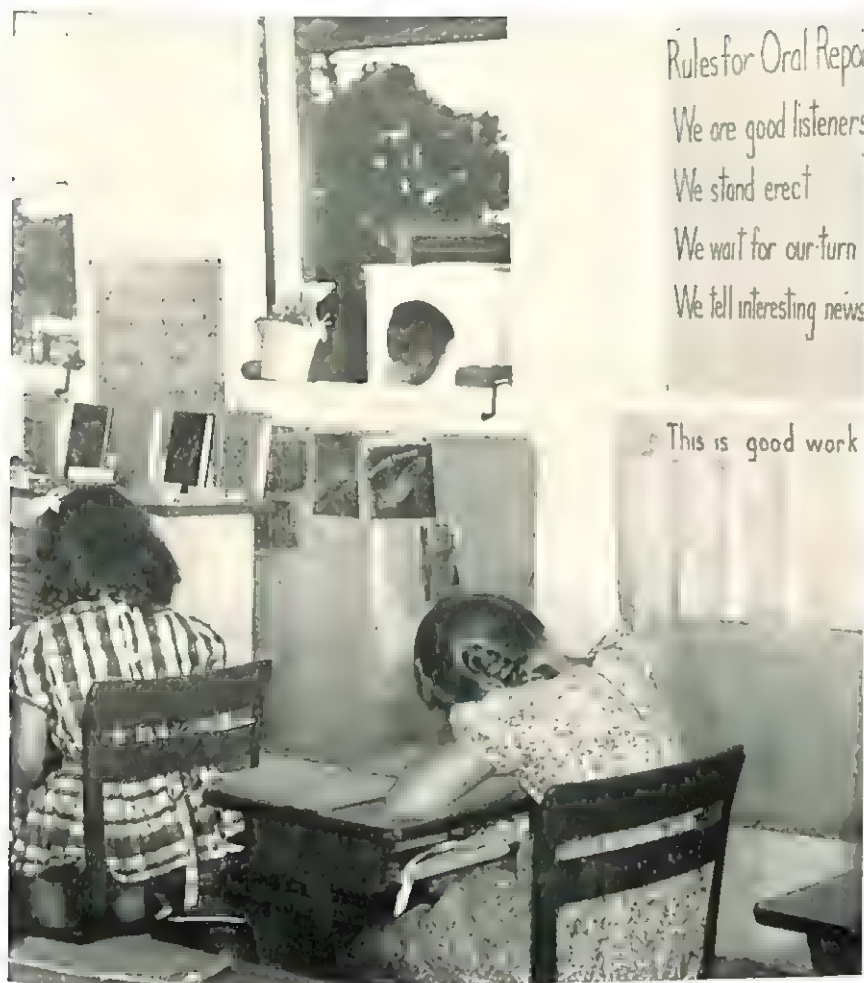
Making Plans for Teaching

CAREFULLY prepared plans will help to make your student teaching more effective in several ways. Once you have analyzed the situation in which you are to teach and have made effective plans based on that analysis, you can proceed in the following manner.

You can develop, organize, and use as guides in your teaching, practical and realistic purposes for a particular group of children. You can systematically consider ways to secure interest and attention, giving specific care to devising procedures and materials that will create a high level of motivation. You can achieve freedom from routine procedures, thus making it possible for you to give maximum attention to the direction of learning. You can avoid wasting valuable time, because activities and materials will have been carefully organized. You can meet the individual needs of children and make their experiences meaningful, because your plans will be based on a study of the individuals in your class. You can achieve flexibility in your procedures, because you will have a framework in which changes can be made as special needs and problems arise. In addition, well-made plans will give you a feeling of confidence and security in the classroom, because you will have definite, appropriate experiences ready to develop with your group.

TRENDS IN PLANNING

A brief summary of current trends in planning will help set the stage for a development of the details of effective planning.



San Diego County

Pre-planning leads to the cooperative development of standards for individual and group work.

Good planning today varies from subject to subject, depending upon purposes, needs of children, resources available, activities involved, and the content of the program. For example, plans for the teaching of word-recognition techniques may adhere closely to recommended procedures in the manual (with adaptations to individual needs), and plans for science or social

studies may be based upon a resource unit from which are drawn activities that are appropriate for a particular group of children. Plans are also viewed today as guides to cooperative group planning and action on the part of the children, not as rigid directions for the teacher to give to children. Pupil participation is essential to the development of rich learning experiences. Here again, there will be some variation from subject to subject. A third trend is to view plans as flexible guides that can be changed as conditions and needs demand. This does not mean that changes should be made on the basis of passing fancies and whims; it does mean that changes should be made to improve learning related to clearly stated purposes. A fourth trend is the recognition of different aspects of planning, with attention to over-all planning for a given term, unit planning, and specific and detailed planning for the work of a given week or day. Unit planning is considered in Chapter 5; the other aspects of planning are considered in this chapter.

GETTING HELP IN MAKING PLANS

Suggestions from Your Supervising Teacher. As you make your plans, you will have frequent conferences with your supervising teacher. In fact, all plans should be approved by your supervising teacher before you teach specific lessons. The following statement indicates the type of suggestions that supervising teachers frequently make and points out follow-up steps that you should take.

Supervising teachers may:

1. Help you get an over-view of the term's work; suggest sections of courses of study, teacher's manuals, and units of work to study.

2. Indicate special needs of children in reading, arithmetic, and other subjects; suggest available materials appropriate for use with various groups.

The student teacher should:

1. Make an outline of the work for the term; note major topics to be included in each subject (see examples on page 88).

2. Observe individuals and groups; note materials being used; select appropriate materials from those available; secure and make new materials.



Our Trip to the Depot
On Monday we went to the freight depot. We saw where telegrams are received. We saw U.S. mail bags and refrigerator cars. We were all weighed on the big scales in the baggage room. As the train went by, the engineer and passengers waved to us.

University Demonstration School, Berkeley

Teacher planning leads to cooperative group planning that will give children significant purposes for each experience.

Supervising teachers may:

3. Suggest a unit of work or give you a choice of several units; suggest types of activities and materials to be used.

4. Indicate first of all the subject that you will teach, such as reading, spelling, or arithmetic; or, the one group in reading or arithmetic that you will work with.

5. Show you types of independent work and other teacher-prepared materials appropriate for use in your class.

6. Point out available community resources and other resources.

7. Indicate special tasks and events for which you should assume responsibility, such as holidays, room parties or programs, or the giving of standardized tests.

The student teacher should:

3. Select the unit that is best for his group; immediately begin background study, planning, and collection of materials (see Chapter 5).

4. Observe and make specific notes; study manuals and texts; make a preliminary plan and secure suggestions for improvement.

5. Prepare similar materials and new types as needed; come up with new and original contributions.

6. Prepare for their use well ahead of time by visiting, previewing, and so forth.

7. Be ready for these responsibilities by preparing materials ahead of time, studying test manuals, and seeking help on questions and special problems.

Supervising teachers may:

8. Ask about original activities and ideas that can be used in class.

9. Suggest conferences with special teachers or visits to the audio-visual center.

10. Answer questions that arise and give other suggestions related to instructional problems.

The student teacher should:

8. Be prepared to propose the use of community resources, charts, and other new resources.

9. Have specific questions in mind so that maximum help can be obtained.

10. Raise questions without hesitancy and be sure to follow up on suggestions that are made.

Suggestions from Your Supervisor. Types of help provided by supervisors of student teachers in connection with planning are noted below.

The supervisor may:

1. Review and outline lesson- and unit-planning procedures; show you plans made by others.

2. Indicate special points to be kept in mind in different situations.

3. Suggest basic references for teachers on specific problems that arise in various subject fields.

4. Suggest activities and materials that will enrich the program.

5. Call attention to errors frequently made in planning, such as failure to: plan a time schedule, secure illustrative material, formulate good questions, plan clear directions, arrange activities in sequence, provide for applications, relate work to child's experiences, gear work to pupil's abilities, give help in summarizing key ideas, plan for evaluation, and consider flexibility in planning.

The student teacher should:

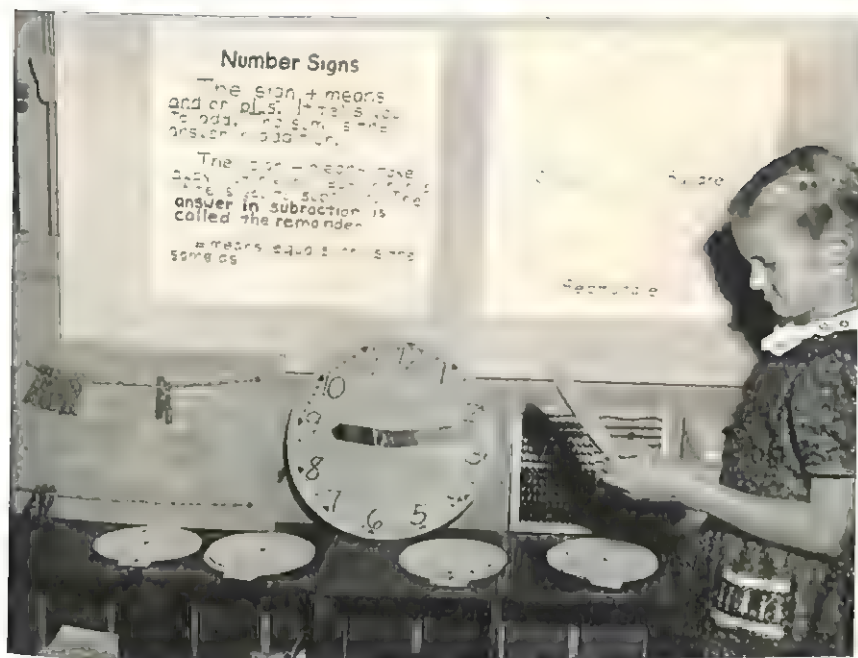
1. Use suggested forms and procedures; remember that they are time-saving; give attention to key points.

2. Incorporate points in plans; raise questions on specific problems; make adaptations to situation.

3. Take notes from pertinent references; incorporate suggestions in plans; raise questions on points that are not clear.

4. Consider ways in which they can be used in class, making necessary adaptations.

5. Check plans ahead of time to determine if any errors have been made or any essential details omitted. Refer to teacher's manuals for special points needing emphasis. When in doubt about directions, questions, or other parts of the plan, discuss them with the supervisor of student teaching or the supervising teacher. Be constantly alert to any changes that should be made as new needs arise.



Richmond, California

Anticipate materials that will be needed during the term and prepare them ahead of time.

OVERVIEW OF THE TERM'S WORK


The major reasons for making a brief overview of the term's work are to give perspective to weekly and daily planning, to indicate major emphases, to assure a balanced program, and to get in mind problems and events on which special advance planning is necessary. Be sure to consider each area of the curriculum that you are to teach. The following examples on reading and social studies are illustrative.

Overview of Work in Reading—Grade III

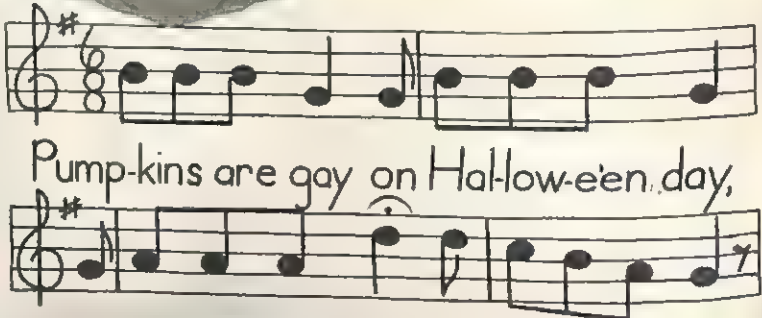
Purposes: To contribute to growth of children in "stage of rapid progress," giving attention to vocabulary development, comprehension skills, reading for pleasure, word analysis, locating and evaluating information, and library skills.

Materials: Basal textbooks, workbooks, phrase and word cards, materials for making independent worksheets, a few books on easy reading level; some materials in local library and school library; teacher's manuals available; related filmstrips available.

Groups: Three reading groups: low group has special set of texts and work materials; other groups working on standard materials; three children need work on beginner's level; be careful not to "label" children as to group; be alert to changes in grouping.



Hallowe'en



Pump-kins are gay on Hal-low-e'en day,

But pumpkins are bright on Halloween night.

Los Angeles

Be prepared for holidays and special events.

Special Events: Be ready for Book Week with bulletin-board arrangement; be prepared to assist with testing program three weeks before end of term.

Overview of Work in Social Studies—Grade V

Unit of Work: Life in Early America, including colonial times, Pioneer Life in Boonesboro, and Westward Movement to the

Pacific; two sample units available with statement of specific purposes; "*My responsibility* is to plan and do section on Westward Movement."

Materials: Resources available in school library, local library, and audio-visual center; must begin previewing and selecting immediately; supervising teacher's picture file may be used; easy-level reading materials needed for one group (8 children).

Special Events: Have plans for commemorating Lincoln's and Washington's birthdays; assist in culminating program to be shared with parents at evening meeting of PTA.

Note that although the examples above are brief and to the point, they give specific emphasis to major tasks that must be considered in planning the term's work. They also present key points that will help in subsequent planning, such as purposes to be emphasized, available materials, individual needs, instructional groups, major topics, special events, and any specific responsibilities such as school programs and administration of tests. After the overview has been made, adequate preparation can be completed well in advance, and weekly and daily plans can be viewed with reference to over-all goals for the term.

WEEKLY PLANS ¹

Many student teachers find it helpful to make a brief outline of the work for the week as a framework for daily planning. Weekly plans are most helpful if they are brief, flexible, and designed to provide for a smooth sequence of experiences. Their use affords an opportunity for the teacher to anticipate difficulties, secure essential materials ahead of time, make needed arrangements for use of resources, and consider the sequence of steps to take in teaching a particular topic or series of related topics. Weekly plans may take several forms, as shown in the following examples.

¹ It should be recognized that the sample plans contained in this section are illustrative only and are not intended to show a complete program of activities in any given area of the curriculum.

Weekly Plan for Rhythms and Music—Kindergarten

1. *Purposes:* To enjoy music and rhythms, teach fundamental rhythms, create interest in using rhythm instruments and moving rhythmically to music, provide for group participation, and recognize patterns in music.

FREE READING TIME				
	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday
Sandra's Group	Draw a picture about a story	Periodicals	Tell a story in pictures	Word Games
Nancy's Group	Word Games	Draw a picture about a story	Periodicals	Tell a story in pictures
Teresa's Group	Tell a story in pictures	Word Games	Draw a picture about a story	Periodicals

Los Angeles

2. *Materials:* Phonograph records of fundamental rhythms, album of "Fly and Butterfly," teacher's manual and text, pages 8-9, rhythm sticks, tambourines.
3. *Procedures:*
 - (a) *Monday*—Observe Miss _____, supervising teacher.
 - (b) *Tuesday*—Play records so children can engage in fundamental rhythms; teach rote song, page 8 in text.
 - (c) *Wednesday*—Review "Elf and Butterfly," tone calls; teach rote song "Rhythm Sticks"; use rhythm sticks with song.
 - (d) *Thursday*—Discuss and demonstrate tambourine; teach song "Tambourine"; use tambourines with song.
 - (e) *Friday*—Rhythmic movements to records; do favorites; use sticks and tambourines.

Weekly Plan for Reading—Grade III

1. *Purposes:* To emphasize vocabulary development, comprehension of main ideas and supporting details, and extension of interests.
2. *Materials:* Basal texts, word cards for vocabulary review, phrase cards containing new words, and pictures to build vocabulary.
3. *Procedures:*
 - (a) Use pictures, discussion, and challenging questions to develop interest prior to reading.
 - (b) Develop new words in phrases and sentences on chalkboard and have children identify them in phrase cards; have individuals read phrase cards and sentences on the chalkboard.
 - (c) Prepare independent work to check main ideas and details.
 - (d) Encourage the playing of word games after completion of assignment.

Weekly Plan for Social Studies—Grade V

1. *Monday*—Discuss the proposed field trip to the museum; list problems and questions; show relationships to unit of work.
2. *Tuesday*—Plan details of the trip and specific responsibilities for individuals and committees.
3. *Wednesday*—Take field trip according to plan.
4. *Thursday*—Discuss and evaluate field trip; summarize major findings; determine ways to use information.
5. *Friday*—Organize and apply information to such activities as making of murals, dioramas, costumes for play, and similar projects.

Arithmetic Weekly Plan—Grade VII

1. *Purposes:* To develop the concept of per cent, to relate use of per cent to problems in daily activities of pupils, and to teach skills involved in using per cent.
2. *Materials:* Per cent chart, textbook, chalkboard, paper and pencils.

3. *Procedures:*

- (a) Discuss the use of per cent in buying, in reading newspapers, in business, and in judging products.
- (b) Discuss meaning of per cent; use chart; compare with known fractions.
- (c) Introduce work in textbook, page 119; develop steps on chalkboard; discuss; encourage questions.
- (d) Assign related problems in textbook; observe pupils at work to note difficulties.
- (e) Re-teach developmental steps as needed; continue examples in textbook, giving individual help as needed.

MAKING DAILY PLANS

Types of daily lesson plans currently in use vary from plan books covering all subjects in a brief outline manner to individual cards or forms for each area of the curriculum. Yet in each type of carefully prepared plan the following parts usually can be identified:

Purposes—Include both teacher's and pupil's purposes or objectives; they should be brief, attainable, and to the point.

Materials—Include materials to be used by teacher in introducing the work as well as materials pupils are to use.

Time schedule—Include estimate of time for introduction and pupil's activities, including evaluation and concluding remarks.

Procedures—Include *introduction* and specific activities to be carried out by children; list procedures and related materials needed to secure interest, develop purposes, and suggest pupil activities; arrange activities in sequence; list questions, illustrations that are to be used, and specific directions for individual and/or group activities.

Evaluation—Include suggestions for appraising pupil's learning; these are frequently included under procedures, because evaluation is really a part of teaching.

The following examples are illustrative. As you read them, note that they are practical, specific, and easy to follow. Note that vague statements of purpose are avoided and that general procedures are not listed. Rather, attention is given to concrete things to do in working with a group of children.

A Daily Plan for Science Excursion—Grade I

Teacher's Purposes:

1. To develop ability to participate with groups.
2. To develop awareness of the things that are growing around us.
3. To develop concepts related to different sizes and shapes of leaves.

Children's Purposes:

1. To have fun walking together and seeing things.
2. To find out how different leaves look.
3. To collect leaves and use them for decorations.

Materials:

Two or three leaves that have fallen from trees in the neighborhood.

Time Schedule:

Use part of time allotted to sharing and rhythms for discussion of what to look for on the walk. Have children go to toilets before leaving. Walk will take from 12 to 15 minutes.

Procedures:

1. Begin by showing one or two leaves that have fallen from trees in the neighborhood. After comments on them by the children, ask, "Who has seen some pretty leaves on the way to school?" After several contributions, ask about the color, size, and shape of leaves. Since many will not be sure, ask, "How can we find out what they look like?" Guide discussion to the question: "Where may we go to see leaves and to gather some?"
2. Develop standards for the excursion, giving attention to staying together, listening for directions when the teacher signals, safety, and gathering fallen leaves to bring back to the room.

FINDING LEAVES

1. Stay together.
2. Listen for directions.
3. Pick up fallen leaves.

3. During the excursion, note behavior and see that the group stays together.
4. Upon returning to the classroom, have individuals show leaves and note different sizes, shapes, and colors.
5. Ask the group what they would like to do with the prettiest leaves. Have children place leaves on the table so that they can be arranged later.

A Daily Plan for Social Studies Construction—Grade III

Teacher's Purposes:

1. To improve children's ability to work together in making materials needed for dramatic play.
2. To improve skills involved in measuring accurately, and in using tools.
3. To increase understanding of types of buildings in the community.

Children's Purposes:

1. To make buildings needed in "Our Town."
2. To help each other by sharing tools and materials.
3. To be careful as we work so that the buildings will be made properly.

Materials:

Tool cart, sawhorse, lumber rack, newspapers, paints in cartons, orange boxes, brushes, rags.

Activities:

1. Group planning (5-10 minutes)

Introduction: Teacher, "Yesterday when we played in 'Our Town' we discovered that we needed more buildings. Can you remember what we needed?" Make a list of needed buildings on the chalkboard. Decide on the ones to be made today. Decide on needed materials. Decide on the individuals who are

to work on each building. Review specific procedures for measuring accurately. Agree on rules for work, places to work, and sharing of tools. Review work standards and clean-up procedures. Give specific attention to placing newspaper on floor before painting, keeping tools under sawhorses when not in use, and returning unused lumber to the rack.

2. Group work (20-25 minutes)

Observe children as they share, help each other, carry out responsibilities in clean-up, and use of tools. Help Mary with use of C-clamp and sawing. (Note: Mary lacked physical development possessed by others.) List points to consider in group evaluation.

3. Group evaluation (10 minutes)

- (a) Have individuals report progress. Consider specific problems encountered in measuring materials and making buildings.
- (b) Consider work standards: commend those who followed them. List specific ways to improve use of standards, and ways to be more helpful in group work.
- (c) Consider other problems noted during observation of group work.

Art Lesson Plan—Grade IV

Teacher's Purposes:

1. To have children make bookmarks for use in reading.
2. To develop skill and appreciation of design and color used experimentally to meet a functional need.

Pupil's Purposes:

1. To make a bookmark in order to keep the place in my book.
2. To make an attractive bookmark.

Materials:

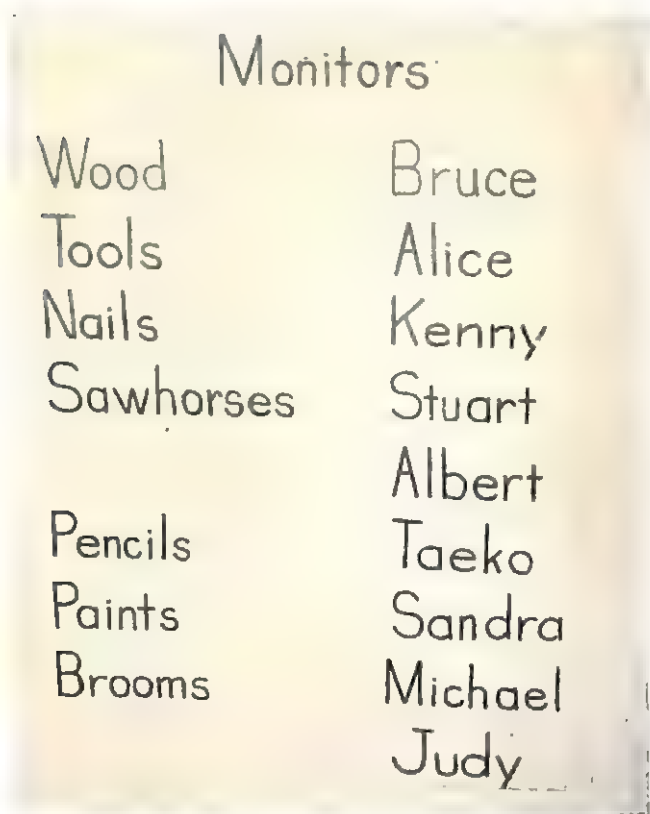
Tagboard strips, crayons, newsprint, and pencils.

Introduction:

1. Begin by asking children to tell how they have kept their places in books heretofore (slips of paper, pieces of tagboard, strips of cloth). Ask if any have seen decorated bookmarks. Today you can make bookmarks of whatever color and design you wish.

Procedures:

1. Pass tagboard strips cut into bookmark size. Discuss the need for preliminary sketches on newsprint. Suggest pencil sketch on tagboard before applying color.



Los Angeles

Consider the specific responsibilities of children in planning.

2. Share sketches informally and discuss possible color combinations.
3. Encourage experimental use of color and design.

Evaluation through Sharing:

1. Provide for the sharing of completed bookmarks by asking children to show theirs to the group. All sharing should be voluntary.

2. Suggest systematic use of the newly made bookmark and the making of additional bookmarks for use in other textbooks.

(Note: This plan and the following one provided space for later evaluation by the supervising teacher and student teacher. Included are their comments, which were written after the plan was used.)

Evaluation by Supervising Teacher:

1. A well-planned and conducted activity. There was a real need for the markers that was recognized by the children. A little more time to sharing at the end of the lesson would have been beneficial for some members of the group. However, this may be taken care of on the following day.

Evaluation by the Student Teacher:

1. This plan worked better than preceding ones. The children enjoyed it and asked to make more bookmarks. Three extra ones were available for each child and most of the group used them. I will plan more time for sharing in the future.

Arithmetic Lesson Plan—Grade V

Teacher's Purpose:

1. To develop an understanding of the division of wholes into fractional parts.
2. To develop the ability to visualize problems involving fractions.

Pupil's Purpose:

1. To learn how to divide a whole into equal parts.

Materials:

1. Felt board with halves and fourths cut from "pie."
2. Strips of 4 x 2 inch paper for cutting into parts; two pieces of ribbon.
3. Textbook in arithmetic.

Procedures:

1. Begin by stating that it is necessary many times to divide articles into equal parts, such as pies and cakes.
2. Have individual children report on items they have divided equally, such as apples, stick candy, and sandwiches.
3. Demonstrate the division of a whole into halves and fourths by cutting the ribbon. Have the group note the number of fourths in a half as well as halves and fourths in a whole. Dem-

onstrate the same process with the felt board. Follow up by having children select one fourth, three fourths, a half.

4. Pass two strips of paper to each child. Have the group measure them with rulers. Ask: "How long will each part be if we divide the paper into halves? Into fourths?" Have the group proceed to measure and cut them.



Los Angeles

Relate plans for creative expression to space arrangements and materials.

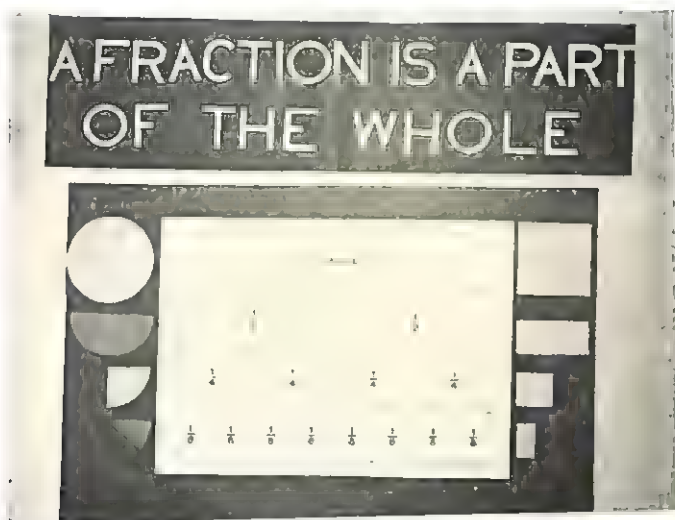
5. Show how this may be done arithmetically. Use procedure outlined on page 218 of textbook.
6. Discuss and assign work on page 219 of text. Move about the room to observe children at work and to give assistance.
7. Appraise work of children by observing them at work and by checking papers.

Evaluation by Supervising Teacher:

1. Good lesson. Children may well participate more in the preliminary steps in subsequent lessons. Give individual help to Paul and Mary.

Evaluation by Student Teacher:

1. Group seemed to grasp ideas quickly, yet two or three individuals seemed confused; will plan a review for them.



Oakland

Plan to use concrete manipulative materials in daily work.

MAKING EFFECTIVE PLANS

A few pointers on making daily lesson plans will save you considerable time and will improve the usefulness of your plans. The following paragraphs give emphasis to problems that frequently arise.

Information About Children. As indicated in Chapter 3, information about children is essential to successful planning. The strengths and special talents of individual pupils should be utilized. Individual needs and difficulties should be met through the planning of activities and the selection of materials. Knowledge about pupils' reading levels, interests, and study skills can be used in selecting library books, supplementary texts, and audio-visual and community resources. Individual, small-group, and total-group activities can be planned effectively only if the needs of the class are known.

Content and Skills To Be Taught. Good planning is based upon a thorough knowledge of subject matter. Arithmetic, reading, social studies, science, and other fields cannot be taught successfully unless you know the content involved in the learning experiences planned for children. Become thoroughly acquainted with textbooks for children and other background materials as needed. Make an outline of content in such fields as arithmetic, science, and social studies. If necessary, practice handwriting (cursive and manuscript) so that you can maintain a high standard in all the work you do with children.

Stating Purposes. In drawing up your lesson plans, make a practical, specific statement of what you hope to achieve. This statement should not be general, vague, or theoretical. For example, when your specific purpose is to improve ability to secure specific information from a reading selection, the specific goal "to improve reading for details" is better than the general goal "to improve comprehension." The general goal involves a variety of abilities. When you desire to develop children's ability to use pictures as clues to word meanings, "to develop the ability to use picture clues in word recognition" is preferable to the general goal "to develop word-recognition techniques." Here again, word recognition involves several abilities. Reading manuals give examples of properly stated purposes, as do manuals for other subjects; you will find it helpful to check them as you make your plans.

Another problem is to state children's purposes in a way that is meaningful, realistic, and consistent with your own purposes. By considering your purposes from the child's point of view, it is relatively easy to state pupil's purposes in your plans. Keep in mind the reason why children need to do this particular lesson and state their purposes accordingly. The following examples are illustrative:

1. *Teacher's purpose:* To improve vocabulary by introducing new words in context.

Children's purpose: To learn new words needed to read about "Billy's Trip to the Farm."

2. *Teacher's purpose:* To improve the ability to read for details.
Children's purpose: To find out how Billy helped to feed the animals on the farm.

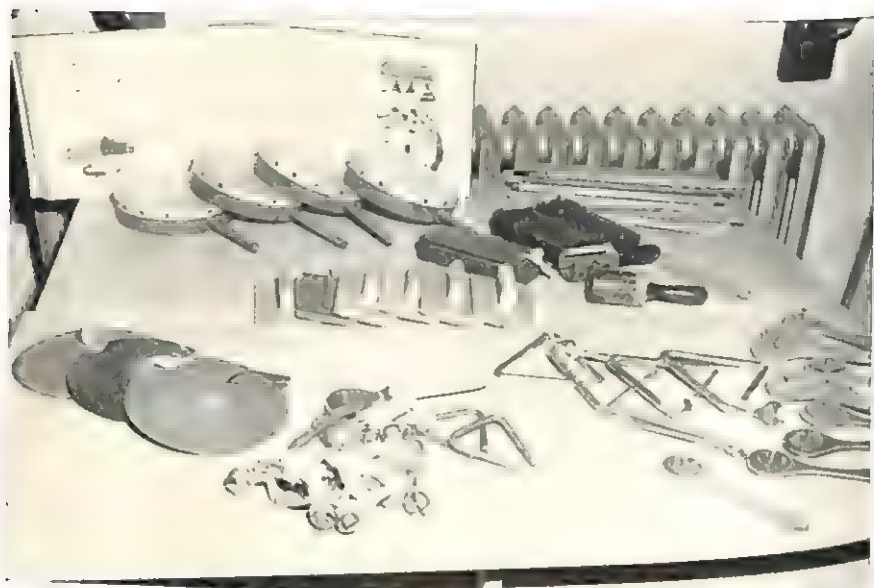
Notice that each "children's purpose" is a practical statement of why they should do the work. Each purpose also suggests a motivating reason for doing the work and gives clues to use in beginning it. Thus purpose and actual activities are tied together. Remember, too, that as children mature, their purposes become more similar to the teacher's purposes.

General purposes that are important in all situations need not be stated in daily plans. For example, "to improve human relationships," "to develop citizenship," "to develop democratic behavior," and "to improve healthful living" are examples of over-all goals that must be kept in mind throughout the entire school program. It is understood that they are important and need attention day by day and year by year as children go through school. They should be used to check the completeness and balance of your program. Similarly, "to meet children's need for security, affection, and belonging" and "to provide meaningful experiences" are considerations that must be made in all phases of the program. Keep such purposes in mind as you project the term's work. In your daily plans, emphasize the specific, attainable purposes that contribute to the over-all goals of education.

Materials. Many lesson plans have failed to lead to successful teaching because essential materials were not included or because directions for their use were not noted. The way to avoid such errors is to make a habit of double-checking to see that needed materials are on hand and ready to be used. Such a procedure requires a thorough acquaintance with techniques of utilization, preparation of pupils for utilization, provision of satisfactory room arrangements, and specific preparation for use of different types of resources, as outlined in Chapter 10.

Time Schedule. One point that needs special emphasis is the importance of considering the time required to carry out pro-

jected activities. First of all, plan plenty of work so that purposeful learning will be going on throughout a given period. Second, provide adequate time to introduce the lesson so that it will be meaningful and purposeful to the group. Third, be sure to check the amount of time necessary for the group to carry out



Oakland

Be sure that needed materials are on hand and ready to be used.

proposed experiences against the class schedule. This does not imply that up-to-date teachers are slaves to a time schedule. Rather it means that they must give attention to the time needed to achieve the specific purposes that are of importance to a particular group of pupils. At first, you may find it helpful to note on your daily plans the amount of time that you estimate will be needed for particular activities.

Varied Procedures. Try to incorporate a variety of procedures into your plans so that maximum effort will be secured from pupils, individual differences will be met, and boredom will be avoided. Vary the introductions to lessons as well as the activities themselves. For example, you might begin some lessons by

reading part of a given selection and then have the children read the rest of it. You might begin another lesson by having the children briefly discuss past experiences and formulate a major question to serve as a guide in their reading. Similarly, vary the activities of pupils so that discussing, drawing, outlin-



Albany, California

Plan for activities at the beginning of the school day as well as for those during the day.

ing, map-making, constructing, experimenting, interviewing, reporting, sharing, and the like will be utilized in addition to writing answers to questions, or filling in blanks while working by themselves.

There are several sources of information that can be utilized in selecting varied activities. Teacher's manuals that accompany basal textbooks are especially helpful because the suggested activities are directly related to the concepts and skills that are being developed. The course of study and units of work constitute other excellent sources. Professional textbooks and magazines dealing with methods of teaching reading, social studies, science, and other areas of the curriculum also contain sug-

gested activities and specific directions for their use. Finally, your supervisor and supervising teacher will have specific activities to propose.

Planning a Good Beginning. You will want to give special attention to a good introduction so that you can get each lesson or experience off to a good start. Your introduction should help the children to see purposes as well as create drive and interest. Several approaches may be used. You may have the group recall previous experiences, as in the following example: "How many remember the plan that Billy's family made? (To visit the farm.) Why do you think it will be fun for Billy? What do you think he will see? Today we can read to find out what he does see." Another approach is to bring out why the children need (or how they can use) what is to be learned. For example, one teacher stated: "What difficulties did we have in writing letters to request samples from the oil company? Check your textbooks to determine the proper heading for a business letter." Other approaches involve the use of pictures, objects, films, and filmstrips, the raising of critical questions, the discussion of related experiences, and the giving of directions to the group. Teacher's manuals contain a variety of other suggested introductions for various types of lessons.

Planning Directions. You will waste a great deal of time if you fail to issue clear and specific directions for individual and group work. Points to keep in mind are:

1. Select words for use in explanations that each child will understand.
2. Help children plan ways of working together as well as individually. Be sure that pupils understand why the activity is important and have an opportunity to raise questions.
3. Be sure each pupil will know *what* to do, *where* to do it (if it is an out-of-seat activity), *what* materials are needed, *how* he is to use them, and what to do when he is finished.
4. Anticipate and be prepared to explain difficulties that may arise, such as difficult words, use of index, use of tools, the technique involved in a specific art activity, or movement about the room.

When we look at books:

We have clean hands.
We are quiet.
We share the books.
We use them in a nice way.
We take care of putting them
away on the shelf.

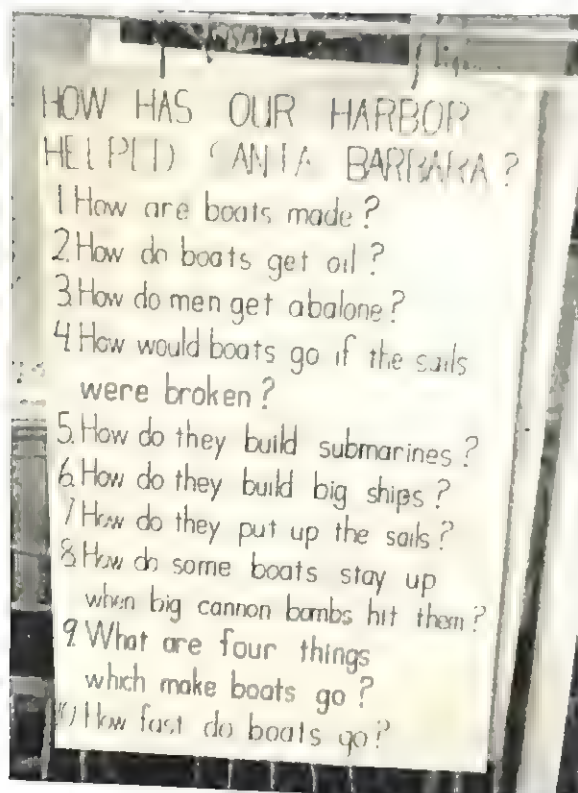


Albany, California

Plan to review group standards before work is carried out in the library.

5. Be prepared to make explanations to individuals or working groups as needed.
6. Include a review of work standards as needed.

Questions. Plan questions that require thinking and discussion rather than a simple *yes* or *no* answer. Use *why*, *when*, *what*, *how*, *who*, and *where*. Plan to use questions as a part of

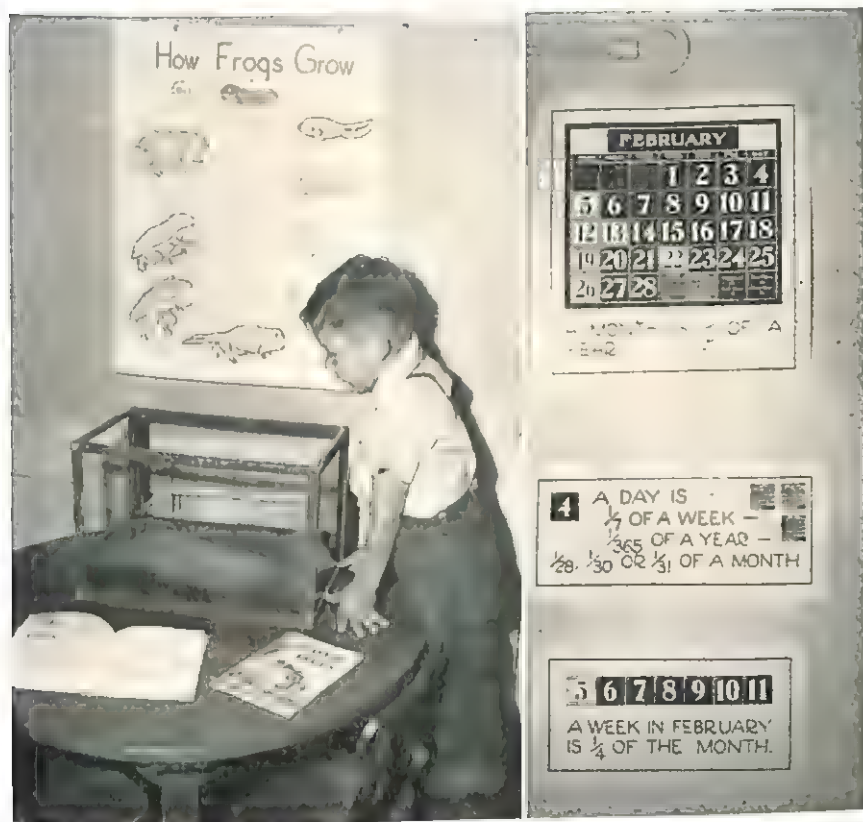


Santa Barbara

Plans are conditioned by the questions raised by children.

group discussion, rather than for formal recitation or as part of a dialogue between you and individual pupils. Address questions to the entire group, not to individuals, and then have pupils make their contributions. Use questions to bring out points in a discussion that are being overlooked. Be alert to

questions raised by children and include them in the discussion. As you grow in teaching competence, move from the question-and-answer procedure to group discussion in which questions and answers arise in connection with key problems, and in which several individuals make contributions on the same point.



Albany, California

Plan for the use of illustrative material to develop concrete meanings.

Evaluation. Evaluation of children's learning should be given systematic attention in your daily planning. This does not mean that you must give a test every day. Rather, observe children at work, examine work that they have completed, raise questions

to determine if they have grasped the main ideas, note any confusions and misunderstandings that arise in work or discussion, provide for group evaluation through sharing and discussion, or use other devices suggested in Chapter 12. And be sure to make use of the standards that the group itself develops for use in discussion, work periods, and other situations. Informal day-to-day evaluation of this type is too vital a part of the instructional program to be neglected in daily planning.

Adequate and Complete Plans. The successful teacher includes as much information in his daily plans as he needs to give himself a feeling of confidence and security as each activity is carried out. At first, you will want to write out detailed plans, including possible introductory remarks, specific questions to ask, and directions for activities. Later in your teaching you may find that brief notes will suffice. Your supervising teacher will also know when this time arrives and will assist you in eliminating unnecessary details from planning.

Forms for Planning. In some situations, special forms or booklets are provided for daily planning. These will prove to be helpful if, as you use them, you do not feel bound to them and thus tend to overlook creative aspects of planning or to minimize certain essentials. They should not become straitjackets that hamper you in designing rich experiences for children. On the other hand, if you use them as guides to insure that you have included all the essential elements in your daily plans, they can be time-saving and thus contribute to your teaching efficiency. The two sample forms that follow are illustrative.

*University of Minnesota
College of Education
Student Teaching-Elementary Curriculum*

LESSON PLAN

General Outline

I. Are you thinking about these things as you plan?

A. Am I utilizing children's experiences wherever it is desirable to do so?

University of California

DAILY LESSON PLAN	Curriculum Area	Name	Date	
Hour				Memoranda: materials needed, etc.
<p>Teacher-Pupil Activities: 1) Purposes a) Teacher b) Pupil 2) Introduction 3) Development 4) Conclusion</p>				
<p>Evaluation of Supervising Teacher</p>			<p>Evaluation of Student Teacher</p>	
<p>(Continue on Other Side)</p>				

- B. What evidences are there that the children are challenged to do creative and constructive thinking?
 - C. Am I considering individual differences in children's interests, needs, and abilities?
 - D. Do I have sufficient books and other learning resources readily available for children's use?
 - E. Does my thinking include these specific problems?
 - 1. What progress toward our goals did we make yesterday?
 - 2. On the basis of yesterday's experiences, what should we do today?
- II. Can you include these points in your written plan?
- A. General objectives
 - B. Specific emphases for today
 - C. Procedure
 - 1. Introduction
 - 2. Development
 - 3. Conclusion and evaluation
 - D. Materials
 - E. Evaluation of work with children (prepared after lesson has been taught).

Summary

The sole purpose of planning is to improve the learning of children. Your supervising teacher and supervisor will assist you in making an overview of the term's work, weekly plans, and daily plans. Use information about your pupils and become thoroughly acquainted with the content and skills involved in the instructional program. State purposes clearly, giving full attention to purposes of children as well as to purposes of the teacher. Select activities and materials that are related to stated purposes. Give specific attention to questions, directions, timing, an effective beginning, and use of varied procedures. Make adequate and complete plans, utilizing forms for planning if they are recommended in your situation.

Another important phase of planning—unit planning—is considered in the next chapter. As you read it, keep in mind that unit planning is an integral part of the total process of developing rich learning experiences for children. In fact, all aspects of planning must be directed toward the achieving of worthy goals in ways that are consistent with the developing needs of children.

Suggestions for Further Reading

- Burr, J. B., L. W. Harding, and L. B. Jacobs, *Student Teaching in the Elementary School*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950. Chapter IV gives a summary of factors in planning for children and for various types of subjects, and in the planning period.
- Mehl, Marie A., H. H. Mills, and H. R. Douglass, *Teaching in the Elementary School*. New York: The Ronald Press, 1950. Chapter VII discusses planning for teaching; consideration is given to types of planning, pupil participation in planning, over-all planning, and daily planning.
- Otto, H. J., *Principles of Elementary Education*. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1949. Chapter XII discusses cooperative planning, management of classroom routines, work periods, and other topics related to effective planning.
- Schorling, Raleigh, and G. M. Wingo, *Elementary-school Student Teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950. Chapter VII includes a statement on planning guides, unit and daily planning, common errors to be avoided, and sample plans.
- Wills, C. D., and W. H. Stegeman, *Living in the Kindergarten*. Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1950. Chapter VII gives a detailed discussion of the kindergarten program; specific suggestions are made relative to planning for the daily program.
- Wofford, Kate V., *Teaching in Small Schools*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946. Chapter VI offers specific suggestions on daily planning in small schools; helpful in rural schools as well as in small schools in suburban areas.

5

Planning the Unit of Work

AS YOU PREPARE to guide a group of children through the various activities and experiences involved in a unit of work, you will want to learn as much as possible about the boys and girls and about the area of experience to be explored with them. It is often possible to learn something of the special abilities, needs, handicaps and other characteristics of the youngsters from school records, their former teachers, the school principal, or their parents. You will continue to learn as work on the unit proceeds, for in every phase of the work you will make mental or written notes of Jim's misconception of a basic principle, Helen's tendency to jump to unwarranted conclusions, and Tom's ability to bring the discussion back to the central problem when others confuse the issue by making irrelevant comments. Your role in seeking to understand each child's needs and in guiding him toward growth in desirable directions will become apparent as we discuss your responsibility for leadership in the group.

There are other aspects of preparation for a specific unit of work. Assuming that the choice of unit has been determined or suggested in your course of study or by your administrators, you will need to consider carefully the many possibilities for profitable learning experiences within the area to be explored. You will not determine in advance just what these experiences are to be, nor the final order of their development, for you want the unit to move ahead as a dynamic series of experiences—a growing sequence of activities, purposed and planned by the

pupils under your guidance. In such a sequence what is done tomorrow depends at least in part on the progress made, the problems encountered, and the insights gained today. The more carefully you have thought through the possibilities in the area and the more skillful you are in predicting the natural sequence of activities, the more competent will be your guidance.

FORMULATE GENERAL AND SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

First, you should think through the principal values of the unit for the group of pupils you are to teach. You will recognize certain broad aims that can be furthered by this unit as well as by many other units. All units should lead to increased knowledge, insight, and understanding of important aspects of social life: how men meet their universal needs for food, clothing, and shelter, how they protect and govern themselves, how they play, express their aesthetic impulses, educate their children, and worship the Supreme Being, how they communicate ideas and transport themselves and the goods they produce. In every unit, boys and girls should grow in their ability to work with materials and with one another; to seek, find, and use pertinent information; to communicate effectively with their fellows; to sense, discuss, and solve problems; and to be more self-reliant in planning and using time and materials. They should grow in sympathy, social sensitivity, and understanding of peoples of all times and places. These basic objectives of education and of the social-studies program should be ever present in your thinking and teaching.

You should, however, attempt to discover and formulate the specific objectives to be achieved by the unit under consideration. What specific ideas and concepts will be gained by these pupils? List as many of these as are essential or pertinent, but remember that the building of concepts is a slow growth over a long period of time, and involves many experiences. The area of social studies, for example, abounds with such concepts as community, worker, climate, industry, mountain, products, pioneer,

ancient, modern, public opinion, conservation, democracy. Ask yourself what generalizations, such as rules, principles, conclusions, or cause-and-effect relationships, these boys and girls will be able to sense. List these, but keep in mind that one generalization may involve many concepts and much first-hand experience. For example: "People use the materials in their environment to meet their basic human needs." "People must abide by laws and regulations if they are to work together effectively and harmoniously." Some concepts and generalizations are so concrete and simple that young children may grasp them easily; others require more maturity and background. It is important that children grow in their grasp of intellectual concepts as they have experiences that give them meaning, but it is equally important that they be protected from the hazy and inaccurate verbalisms, stereotypes, and misconceptions that play a counterfeit role in the realm of thinking and communicating.

MAKE A TENTATIVE PLAN OF ACTIVITIES AND EXPERIENCES

One of the great values of a unit of work is that it includes a wide variety of profitable activities knit together into a growing fabric of purposeful, challenging experience. Consider carefully how you will guide your group through these several kinds of activity, and make a tentative outline of the content of the unit and, insofar as possible, of the sequence of activities. While you are doing this, and in order to do it well, you must seek by every feasible means to extend and enrich your own background in the area. Outlines of units planned or carried out by other teachers in your grade can help you greatly in sensing the possibilities of the unit. Such outlines often contain bibliographies, lists, and sources of such materials as pictures, films, slides, songs, and poems, as well as industrial-arts processes, experiments, and excursions. They can save you much time and effort in orienting yourself in the area of experience.

You will need to read as widely as possible on the subject,



Los Angeles

A variety of experiences and resources are included in units of work

both the material written for adults and that written for children. Informational books, stories, historical fiction, poetry, and, in some instances, even purely fanciful tales, will all serve the needs of your pupils and yourself. As you read, or perhaps skim, the books written for children, you will want to make notes on the reading difficulty and the particular aspects of the subject covered. A topical bibliography, indicating which pages or chapters in various children's books deal with a specific problem or sub-topic, will prove invaluable as work on the unit goes forward. If you find essential material in a book that is too difficult for your group to read, you will need to write one or more pages in simple language, giving the necessary information. You may want to copy pertinent poems in order to keep them in a notebook or card file for immediate use when needed. Children's encyclopedias contain useful articles on many topics.

You will need to gather pictures wherever you can find them—in magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, folders, or in commercial materials distributed by such groups as the National Dairy Council, the Association of American Railroads, and many individual industrial and commercial corporations. Actual photographs are extremely valuable; if you are an amateur photographer you may be able to take just the shots you need in your own or nearby communities. You are fortunate if your school district has a large picture collection from which you may choose, or, better yet, a packet of pictures assembled for your unit. Do not fail, however, to start your own growing file of pictures, for nothing can take the place of your own carefully selected, permanent collection. Some necessary pictures may be available only as small illustrations in a book that cannot be mutilated. In such cases, you can make a larger sketch or a painting based on the authentic illustration. Sometimes this procedure is to be preferred, since irrelevant or confusing details can be omitted.

Films, slides, and slide-films are also important. You will need to list those appropriate to the unit, and, sooner or later, pre-

view them to judge their suitability and the potential contribution they can make to your class. The description of a film provided by the distributor is helpful, just as the synopsis of a book is, but it cannot substitute for your own critical preview of the film itself. A memorandum on the things your pupils might learn from the film and the approximate time in the unit when it can most profitably be shown will be valuable later on.

Real objects can make a unique contribution to the room atmosphere and can stimulate keen interest in the area to be explored. A few serapes, sombreros, and real Mexican bowls are invaluable in a study of Mexican life. An ancient musket, a powder horn, and a leather jacket will add interest to an exploration of life on the frontier. Your pupils may be able to bring such treasures from home, you may find them in a museum, or your audio-visual department may have either the authentic objects or realistic reproductions. Try to find appropriate items to set the stage for the initiation of the unit.

If your unit involves industrial-arts processes, such as dipping candles, weaving on a simple loom, or making bowls by the coil method, you should not only find accurate descriptions of the process, with illustrations, but you should yourself try out and practice the process until you are confident of your own ability to guide your pupils in mastering it. You may need to write in simple language a description of each step to be taken, for use by your pupils when they attempt the process.

Nearly every community contains resource persons who have had first-hand experience in the area being investigated. These may be the neighborhood grocer or fireman or postman, a family that formerly lived abroad, an airplane pilot or hostess, a specialist in some line of work—anyone whose tales, knowledge, or explanations of processes bear the stamp of authenticity. Try to talk with such persons, and invite them to visit your class to share their insights and attitudes with the pupils.

To plan for the unit and also to enrich your own background, explore the possibilities of excursions within your community.

To name a few of the places that might be visited is to suggest the large number of field trips that might be profitable at some time. For example: airports, banks, broadcasting stations, dairies, factories, farms, fire stations, the harbor, houses under construction, lumber mills or yards, markets, newspaper plants, police stations, post offices, railroad stations, stores, zoos. Select those trips that are appropriate to the unit and feasible for your pupils. Take these trips yourself first, to enrich your own understanding and to determine what your pupils will be able to see, understand, and interpret. Contact the appropriate official, ask about the possibility of bringing the class, and learn what advance preparations will be necessary. You will, of course, make note of the specific things to be seen, questions that the trip might answer, and questions that might arise from the excursion.

PLAN FOR INITIATION OF THE UNIT

In some instances, a unit grows naturally or perhaps inevitably out of the preceding work of the group. In most cases, however, you will need to plan carefully for experiences that will develop keen interest in a new area, and will lead the pupils to engage in spirited discussion, to raise questions they would like to answer, to suggest activities they would like to carry on, and to sense problems they would like to solve. You can create this interest through the reading of a story, the use of audiovisual materials, a class session with a resource person, or an excursion. Many teachers have found that creating an "arranged environment" in the classroom provides the most effective initiation. They arrange an attractive display of pictures and objects characteristic of the area of study. Appropriate legends, questions, or charts may be used with the pictures and objects to heighten interest and to stimulate discussion. Invite the pupils to inspect the display, and encourage them to discuss what they see with one another. Permit them to handle and manipulate the objects, unless these are precious or fragile. If there are trains, trucks, boats, or airplanes in the display, younger chil-

dren will surely start to play with them, moving them about in simulation of the real thing. Attractive books may lie open on the table, silently inviting perusal.

No one type of initiation is best in every possible situation, but when children are given freedom to react to an arranged environment, they themselves tend to take the initiative in ask-



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An attractively arranged classroom provides an effective initiation of the unit of work.

ing questions and proposing activities they would like to pursue. This is much better than when you as the teacher make all the suggestions. During the period of exploration, be careful to make note of the children's comments, questions, and suggestions. After the children have spent a reasonable period in exploring the arranged materials, call them to their seats and talk over with them what they have seen. The numerous questions they ask may be written on the chalkboard or on a large piece

of wrapping paper. If the children feel free to be themselves, they will express wishes to make boats or trucks or airplanes to play with, and perhaps a harbor or an airport. These, of course, would be the desires of primary pupils. Older boys and girls might want to dress and hunt and "live" like pioneers. They would probably want to make pioneer clothing, guns, powder horns, candles, and soap, to cook and eat hoe cakes and other pioneer foods. These needs would not all emerge immediately, for the youngsters will not know that the pioneers had to make their own soap and candles until they begin to read about the life of those hardy people.

You will need to be prepared to guide the first experiences, whether these are dramatic play, construction, a field trip, or, with older children, further study of books, pictures, and objects. This will not be hard if you have thoughtfully considered the many kinds of experience that will sooner or later be involved in the unit. Let us consider some of these important activities and suggest ways of making them effective learning experiences.

Before proceeding, however, a few words about the nature of learning are in order. In a typical learning experience, we can recognize two aspects. One of these is the intake of information, concepts, ideas, and insights through observation, manipulation, reading, viewing still or motion pictures, listening to and participating in discussion, experimentation, and so forth. The other aspect is giving expression to the new concepts and understandings through dramatic play, drawing, painting, rhythmic bodily movements, oral and written language, and other channels. The most fruitful learning experiences unite these two aspects of taking in and giving out. Continual interaction should occur between the two, for, with children especially, a thing is only half learned until it is expressed. The relationship, however, is not a simple one-two sequence. The child gains an idea, let us say, but at first it is partial and vague. As he tries to express it, he is forced to seek further and more definite information. As he seeks to give tangible expression to this more complete

concept, he will undoubtedly need still more accurate and thorough knowledge of the subject. In your guidance of children, you should be continually sensitive to the possibilities of vivid, first-hand intake and satisfying, personal output of ideas and understandings.

The number of different activities that may be involved in a unit is very large. The following list is by no means complete.

Raising questions	Dramatizing
Answering questions	Painting
Discussing	Sketching
Listening	Constructing
Observing	Measuring
Experimenting	Planning
Reporting	Collecting
Reading	Exhibiting
Describing	Block building
Interviewing	Singing
Evaluating	Dancing
Playing	Modeling
Problem-solving	Sharing
Taking excursions	

Since space does not permit discussion of even this limited number of activities, let us consider several of the most important, such as dramatic play, discussion, planning, problem-solving, sharing, construction, reading and study, use of oral and written language, excursions, and creative expression.

PROVIDE OPPORTUNITY FOR DRAMATIC PLAY

Although adults like to talk about their interests and experiences, children universally seek to interpret and express experiences, stories, and the life they see around them through what has come to be known as dramatic play. Dramatic play takes place when children say to one another, "Let's play house," "Let's play cops and robbers," "Let's play Indians and pioneers," and then proceed to portray the activities of the respective persons as they understand them. Outside school such play may have little educational value, because it is not guided. In school, the dis-

cerning teacher leads children to seek constant improvement in their play through an enrichment of the concepts they are trying to express. She does this primarily not by telling, but by asking such questions as these: Is that the way the pilot really lands his plane at the airport? Is that the way the Pueblos hunted rabbits? How does the farmer actually send his milk to the city? Children raise such questions themselves as soon as



Oakland

Dramatic play in the store is a meaningful mode of expression for children studying their community.

they sense the possibility of making their play more authentic, and they readily search for the answers to their own questions.

Dramatic play has many values in the unit. Some of the principal values are as follows:

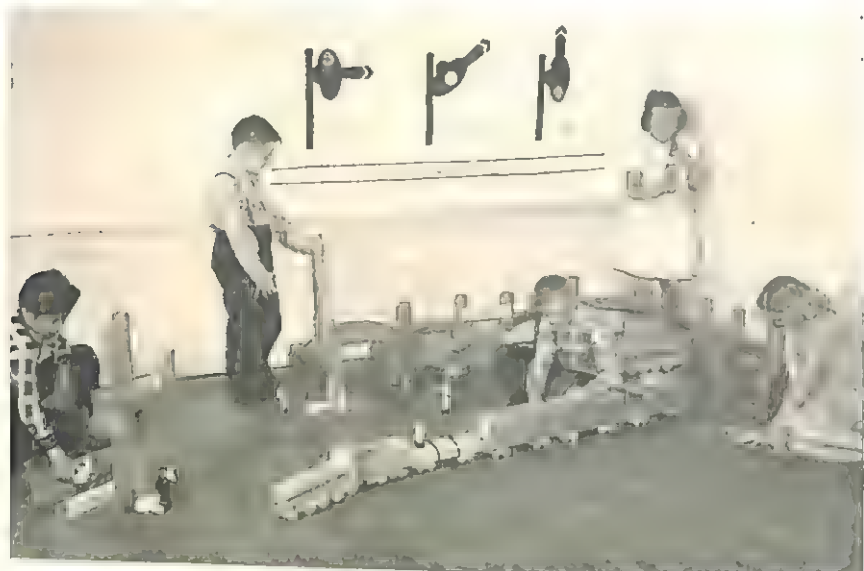
1. Dramatic play stimulates the purposeful acquisition of new ideas and concepts and a great body of accurate information, through reading, study, observation, and otherwise.
2. It requires functional use of oral language in planning, group activity, and evaluation.
3. It encourages poise, self-reliance, and self-confidence by permitting each child to play a role of his own choosing.

4. It requires cooperation, mutual sharing, and courtesy among all members of the group.
5. It provides many situations requiring practice of the skills of group problem-solving.
6. It permits the expression of emotions and the release of tensions in satisfying and acceptable ways.
7. It stimulates aesthetic expression in the fine and industrial arts, in music, creative language, and in other media by revealing needs for properties and backgrounds to make the play more complete.
8. It provides the teacher with an unparalleled opportunity to observe and evaluate not only children's needs and achievements in information and understanding, but also their successes and failures in practicing the social skills of planning, working, and contributing as members of a group.

Children's first efforts at dramatic play probably will be confused and lacking in content, portraying only a few of the more obvious activities of the characters represented. Misconceptions may be revealed. Your role as teacher is to observe without interfering, unless serious quarrels arise, danger threatens, or things get out of hand. After a reasonable time, and surely when you consider that further play will be fruitless, you will call the group together to discuss and evaluate their experience. The children will have suggestions to make; probably criticisms that Bill didn't do his part right, that Suzie got in the way of other people, and that Henry did the same thing over and over. You will lead them to formulate a small number of practical suggestions or rules that will make for a more satisfying experience next time. It is likely that little progress can be made until they seek a greater fund of valid information as a basis for the play.

The first dramatic play may involve only a half or a third of the total group, while the rest observe and note ways of improving the play. After evaluation, a new group may be permitted to try to improve on the play of the first group. In some instances it will be apparent that the play cannot be successful until certain properties are assembled or constructed. You may then guide the discussion to a consideration of ways and means of

providing the needed "props." Young primary children may be satisfied to use a rectangular block of wood for a truck, a train, or a boat in the harbor. Those a little older will demand for a boat a board pointed at one end with a smaller block attached as a cabin and a dowel rod as a smokestack. Later, they will want



Los Angeles

Pupil planning is essential to effective utilization of materials in dramatic representation.

tugboats, liners, freighters, and ferry boats that are distinguishable from one another.

In each succeeding period of dramatic play you will spend your time very profitably observing and making notes during the play. In the subsequent evaluation period you will guide your group to set up for themselves progressively higher standards. These standards will relate to the scope and authenticity of the subject matter and the maturity and complexity of the rules and regulations governing the conduct of the persons participating. Often you will make charts of these carefully formulated stand-

ards, displaying them for all to see before, during, and after succeeding play periods. For example, there might be one on play in the harbor such as this:

PLAY IN THE HARBOR

Liners must signal for tugboats to bring them into the harbor.

Fire boats have the right of way when going to a fire.

Boats may lie at the dock only while being loaded or unloaded.

Creative rhythms or rhythmic expression are often quite similar to dramatic play, with the difference that the children emphasize the rhythmic nature of the activities being portrayed. This may be the rhythm of a farmer sowing and reaping the grain, the rhythm of moving trains, trucks, ships, airplanes, and factory machines, or the rhythm of the pioneer felling trees and clearing the land. The possibilities are endless and intriguing. Your guidance will be similar to that in dramatic play.

CONDUCT STIMULATING DISCUSSIONS

We have mentioned discussions held for the purpose of evaluating dramatic play. Group discussion is used in several situations and for several purposes in the unit, such as: planning, problem-solving, sharing, and evaluating. The following suggestions will help you guide all types of discussions.

1. Encourage participation by every pupil.
2. Discourage tendencies to monopolize the discussion.
3. Discourage arguments.
4. Permit intervals of silence to encourage thinking.
5. Train pupils to talk to other pupils and to the whole group as well as to you.

6. Teach pupils to respect the opinions and contributions of others.

7. Insist upon courteous forms of speech.

8. Teach pupils to stay on the point and make constructive suggestions.

9. Summarize or ask the group to summarize when a summary will clear the situation or provide a basis for moving forward.

10. Challenge misconceptions and misinterpretations of fact.

11. Commend especially helpful contributions.

12. Ask questions to assist a child to make his contribution more helpful or more complete.

13. Discourage repetition of suggestions that have already been made.

14. Help pupils distinguish between fact and opinion.

15. Emphasize clarification of meanings and relationships.

16. Record on chalkboard or chart the results of the discussion, if necessary.

Generally, it will be better for you to serve as the discussion leader rather than to delegate this responsibility to a child. The discussion should serve three major purposes: take care of the matter at hand, build unity and morale within the group, and train pupils in the skills and attitudes appropriate to group discussion. To accomplish this latter aim, you will need to direct your group's attention to the techniques of successful discussion. Occasionally, you will lead them in the formulation of standards to be observed. These will be printed on a chart to be consulted frequently, and to be added to occasionally. Such a chart might be as follows:

DISCUSSION SUGGESTIONS

Keep to the point.

Don't repeat what has been said.

Speak so everyone can hear.

Listen to the other person.

Make a constructive suggestion.

If a pupil is given the opportunity to serve as discussion leader—and children do need such experiences—he should be helped by a previous discussion of the functions of a leader, together with the formulation of definite suggestions. Some of these might be: Call on different people, let only one person speak at a time, come back to the point if the discussion wanders, summarize the points made. When the group has set up discussion standards for themselves or for the leader, take a few moments to help them evaluate their success in meeting the standards and to agree upon what they will do in the future to improve their discussions.

GIVE ATTENTION TO PUPIL PLANNING

One value of the unit is the opportunity it gives pupils to participate in the planning of their own learning experience. The ability to plan wisely and effectively is needed throughout life. The importance of effective planning justifies the expenditure of considerable time and effort in helping boys and girls acquire this ability. The necessity for planning appears frequently when it becomes obvious that work cannot go forward without it. The large experiences that will be undertaken must be decided upon first. For example, the construction of a harbor and the several types of ships, the buoys, the lighthouse, and the several types of cargo needed. Or the costumes, long rifles, hunting knives, trenchers, and powder horns and pouches needed by young "pioneers." When this decision is made, plans must be outlined for the work of each person. Who is to make tugboats? Who will work on the dock? Then there must be planning for how each person is to get his materials, how he is to begin and carry through his enterprise. Or, if the group feels the need for more information, plans must be made for securing it. What sources are available? What other sources are needed? How shall individual responsibilities be allocated?

Here are some general suggestions that may help you, as you guide children in planning and in learning to plan more competently:

1. Center attention on the large decisions, such as choice of major activities.
2. Weigh the relative merits of various alternatives.
3. Enlist the participation of each person in the making of important decisions; strive for consensus.
4. Decide upon the sequence of activities.
5. Define the problems that must be solved before the work can proceed.
6. Anticipate some of the difficulties that may be encountered.
7. Consider the materials that will be required.
8. Plan how to secure, store, allocate, use, and conserve materials.
9. Define the kind of conduct that will further the enterprise, and set up standards for construction, research, an excursion, or a period of creative expression.
10. Make sure each person knows what his responsibility is and just how he will discharge it.
11. Maintain an atmosphere that encourages the modification of plans on the basis of further experience or new evidence.
12. Keep a visible record of plans made and of individual and committee responsibilities.

EMPHASIZE PROBLEM-SOLVING

Children who are engaged in a continuous series of activities and experiences that they have helped choose and plan meet many difficulties and obstacles. This urgent necessity for solving numerous actual, here-and-now problems is the fundamental reason that such a school program is so highly educative. One of your most useful functions as a teacher is to help your pupils solve problems. Problems arise in planning, as we have suggested, in dramatic play, in construction, in locating and interpreting information, in giving expression to the new impressions and insights gained—in short, in every aspect of the work on the unit. Many of the suggestions already presented for guiding discussion and planning apply to problem-solving. Below are additional suggestions to help you guide your pupils in a more systematic attack upon problems. Remember that some prob-

lems require a much more elaborate attack than others, and that older pupils can follow a more elaborate and systematic plan than younger ones. It is important, though, that boys and girls gradually mature in their understanding of effective problem-solving techniques and in their skill in using them.

1. Define the problem as clearly as possible.
2. Decide just what will constitute an adequate solution.
3. Consider what data are available for solving the problem, and organize them.
4. Decide what additional data are needed and how these may be secured.
5. Consider suggestions of how similar problems have been solved.
6. Suggest and evaluate other possible solutions.
7. Think through the implications of one or more suggested hypotheses and verify or reject the proposed solution.
8. Encourage the suspension of judgment until the problem can be viewed from all angles.
9. In some cases, you may have to put the problem aside and make a fresh attack on it later.
10. In some cases, the steps taken in solving the problem should be summarized and recorded, and the implications for future problem-solving should be pointed out.

PROVIDE TIME FOR SHARING

Children need opportunity and encouragement to share with one another their experiences, the products of their handiwork, interesting stories or poems they have discovered, and pictures or objects that they have found or collected. Much of the content to be shared will be related to the unit, but not necessarily all of it. Many primary teachers, for example, provide a brief period at the opening of school every morning, or on certain mornings, for the sharing of experiences pupils may have had or objects they may have acquired since the previous day. A sharing time is often desirable after a construction period or after a period devoted to some form of creative expression so that

pupils may share with one another the products they have made and the success they have enjoyed. This time also affords an opportunity to explain problems that have been met and to seek the help of the group in solving them. After a period of free reading, a sharing of some of the choice selections discovered can be both enjoyable and profitable in extending interest and developing taste in good literature. Whatever the occasion for sharing or the nature of the elements shared, certain procedures should be followed.

First, note that a sharing period differs from a discussion period. In sharing, one person is the speaker; the others are the audience. This fact imposes certain obligations on both speaker and audience. The speaker should choose something to share that will interest the group. If it is a tangible object, he should display it so that all can see. He should talk about it clearly and coherently in a voice that all can hear. He should look at and speak to his audience, not to the teacher alone. He should know when to conclude his remarks, invite questions or comments, and then yield his place to the next contributor. Children in the audience should listen quietly, show an interest in the speaker and his presentation, and raise questions and make suggestions at appropriate times.

You will need to help your pupils formulate standards for the sharing period, incorporating such suggestions as those just enumerated, and to guide them in a gradual improvement as members of a sharing experience. The following are further suggestions to guide you in your conduct of the sharing period.

1. Seat the group comfortably so that all can see and hear.
2. Create an atmosphere of good will and of anticipation of pleasant experiences.
3. Show interest in each child's contribution and express appreciation of his effort.
4. Select participants with discrimination, insuring that over a period of time each child has a chance to share.
5. Do not interrupt the speaker to correct his use of English.

6. Help the speaker if he can not proceed by himself.
7. Insist that the audience give the speaker a chance to be heard.
8. Bring something to share yourself, occasionally, setting an example of good sharing procedures.

PLAN FOR WELL-CHOSEN CONSTRUCTION PROJECTS

Construction experiences can play an important role in the balanced development of children. We have already seen that children often need to construct things to insure the best development of the unit. The variety of things needed in different classrooms is great, depending of course on the particular unit. In the primary grades, if the unit deals with community life, there may be a need for houses, stores, service stations, warehouses, churches, trucks of several types, trains with a variety of cars, a wholesale market, a fire station, or a post office. If the study is of farm life, there may be need for barns, fences, a farmhouse, chicken coops, milking stalls, grain sacks, a milk truck, or a hay wagon. In a study of the life of a people, the children might need a house, furniture, costumes, headgear, pottery, weapons, spinning and weaving equipment, baskets, lamps or candles, and utensils for eating. Certain activities, such as carding wool, breaking and spinning flax, weaving, dyeing fabrics, making soap, cooking, and wedging clay, are more properly designated as processes rather than as construction. We may include these here, however, since their role in the unit is similar to that of construction.

The suggestions should indicate that only those objects are constructed that make a real contribution to the dramatic play and to other activities in the unit. The purpose for making each object should be evident, and when a pupil has undertaken to make something, he should realize that the whole project will be handicapped if he does not satisfactorily fulfill his obligation. In the lower primary grades, it is often desirable for children to do a part of the construction of houses, corrals, and other

buildings with blocks. As more permanent buildings are needed, it is best to have children start with apple boxes or orange crates, cutting the doors and windows and adding sloping roofs as needed. Any construction project the child undertakes should be sufficiently difficult to challenge his skill and ingenuity but not so difficult or time-consuming that he is unable to complete



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University of California, Los Angeles

Carefully chosen construction projects make a real contribution to dramatic play.

it successfully. We are not including in the term construction flimsy things made of paper or tiny sandbox structures. The objects constructed should be as authentic and realistic as is practicable for the age level of the children and should be sufficiently substantial to be used in realistic dramatic play.

Before suggesting procedures to follow in guiding construction, let us list some of the values of this type of activity. Bear in mind, though, that the activity does not automatically yield these values: it is your guidance that makes the experience a richly educative one.

1. Construction develops skill in working with a variety of tools and materials.
2. It provides activity for the large muscles and a balance to quiet activity.
3. It demands planning and the solution of real problems.
4. It requires self-control, cooperation, and sharing.
5. It clarifies and enriches meanings and concepts.
6. It often demands serious study and research.
7. It facilitates release of tension and provides an emotional outlet.
8. It requires understanding and use of arithmetical concepts and skills.
9. It increases interest in the classroom and in the school program.

We have previously mentioned the importance of planning. In construction activities, planning is very important indeed. Before you can free two or three dozen youngsters to disperse themselves over the room to hammer, saw, measure, paint, sew, and dye, you yourself must know, and each child must know, what he is to do, where and how he will do it, where and how he will get the materials needed, where the tools are to be kept, how tools are to be used, where such equipment as sawhorses and workbenches are to be used, and by whom. There must be agreement on the correct procedure to follow when two or more persons are ready at the same time to use the same tool or piece of equipment. There must be understanding of the kinds of noise that are necessary and acceptable and the kinds that are not. There must be regulations that promote safety in the use of tools, equipment, and materials. There must be an agreement that work will be stopped promptly when the end of the period arrives, and that an orderly procedure will be followed in restoring tools, equipment, and materials to their proper places. Certain of these duties should be delegated to specific children, and the others should take responsibility for cleaning up benches, tables, and floor.

You may feel that the guidance of a construction period is a

large and formidable undertaking. It does, indeed, require thought and organization. But with careful planning you can make it a successful and enjoyable experience both for you and your pupils. If your group is not used to this type of work, you will have to begin in a small way, perhaps with only a part of the class working at their projects at one time. You will guide the boys and girls to think through the many factors involved in a satisfactory construction period and to formulate the standards to be observed in making the work go smoothly. You will have to remind them many times before these standards become second nature. The reward for such efforts will be your sincere satisfaction as you see your pupils become increasingly able to manage their own affairs in this free type of situation.

When the children do begin their construction activities, your role will be chiefly that of observer and counselor. You will need to see that every child is going ahead with his work and that he is using materials and equipment in a safe and effective manner. If one youngster's work is blocked, you may help him overcome his difficulty by a pertinent question or two. You will commend pupils who adhere carefully to the accepted standards. You will want to make notes to use in the evaluation period that should follow the construction activities. Include in your notes such things as these:

1. Problems met by individuals or groups.
2. Instances of good problem-solving.
3. Techniques needed in the use of tools or equipment.
4. Instances of unusual industry and good work habits.
5. Inaccurate or inadequate concepts.
6. Names of pupils who stop work promptly when the signal is given, or who are especially helpful in cleaning up.

The evaluation of the construction period will include consideration of any general problems of the group in working together more efficiently, as well as the specific needs and difficulties of individuals. It is partly a problem-solving time and partly an opportunity to share and enjoy the successes of one's self and

one's fellows. The group problems may relate to an inadequate supply of tools, equipment, or materials, or the need for a more convenient arrangement of the work spaces in the room, or a better plan for sharing tools, or a difficulty commonly met in going ahead with the work. Individual difficulties are endless in number: problems of measurement or proportion, of using tools, of how to achieve the desired result, of deciding what material to use and how to secure it.

BUILD EFFICIENT READING AND STUDY SKILLS

Reading is one of the most important sources of information in the unit of work, although it is by no means the only source. The study and research activities included in the unit provide one of the best possible opportunities for the purposeful improvement of reading skills and abilities. Almost every reading ability is needed. There is silent and oral reading, individual and group reading, work-type and pleasure reading, reading of many types of materials on several levels of difficulty for many different purposes.

Locating reading material on a given topic is a common need at many points in the unit. The children may need a clear description of an object and how it was made, or an explanation of a custom or a belief or a process. They may need an explanation of a situation faced by a group, and the group's response to the challenge, danger, or opportunity. The need for locating such materials is so frequent—almost continuous—that you must help your pupils to master the various locational skills appropriate to their maturity. These include using the table of contents and index, chapter headings and subheadings, marginal notes, and key sentences in paragraphs. Then there are card indexes, reference books, encyclopedias, atlases, periodicals, and guides to periodical literature. You can build these skills by directed lessons in the use of each of the locational aids and also by giving specific help to individuals and groups as they seek to find some needed information.

When your pupils have found the material they seek, they will read for different purposes. At one time it will be to get a broad background of understanding. They will want general ideas and impressions. At another time, it will be to find the detailed facts that answer a specific question. Again, it will be to find and to follow directions for a process or a piece of construction they wish to carry out. Or they may need a body of related facts to make their dramatic play more authentic. In much of the reading, critical evaluation will be needed: to determine whether the information is pertinent and sufficiently complete or detailed for the purpose at hand; to note whether it agrees with what is already known on the subject, or what is found in another source; to decide if indeed it does answer the question in mind; and in other ways to appraise its utility.

When information is sought in order that it may be used in a related activity, you may find it desirable to make notes, or perhaps to outline the main points. Here you have an ideal opportunity to teach your pupils the values and uses of note-taking, outlining, and summarizing—study skills that will be useful throughout life.

A technique that has come to be called multi-text reading¹ has been developed to fit one of the frequent situations requiring research reading in the unit at the intermediate grade level. Let us assume that a need arises for knowing more about what happens between the time trees are growing in the forest and the time lumber is available for building houses. You will lead the group to tell what they know about lumbering and list with them the questions they would like to have answered. There may be twenty or thirty such questions. They may be left in random order, or organized into several categories, such as: In the Forest, Transportation, Raising Trees, Enemies of Trees. If you have made previous preparation, you will have available a considerable number of books on lumbering, grouped into

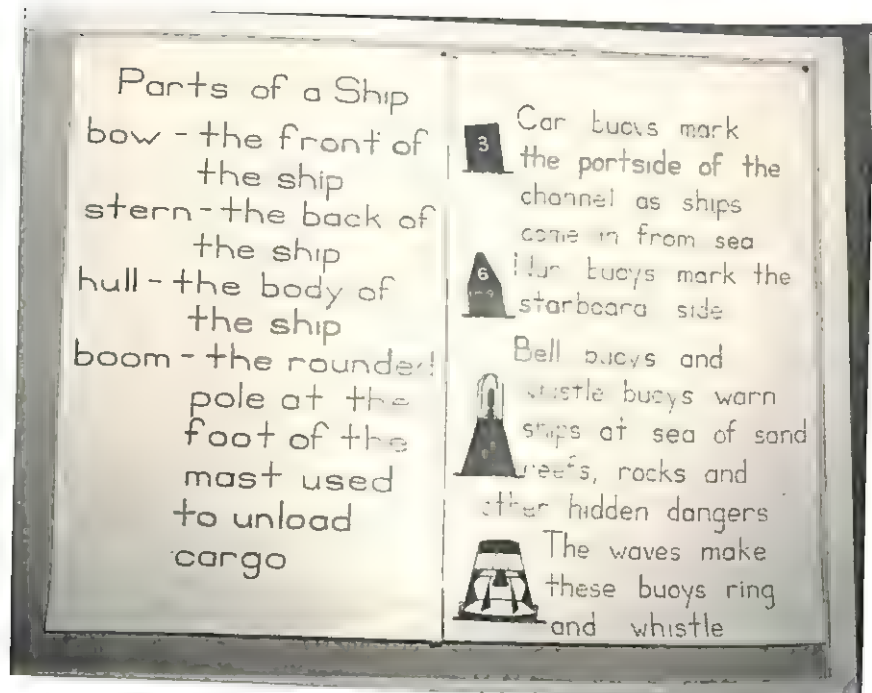
¹ Ethel I. Salisbury, "Multi-text Reading To Improve Skill and Promote Democratic Interaction," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, Vol. 14, August, 1945, pp. 11-21.

perhaps three levels of difficulty. Each child selects or is guided to a book of appropriate difficulty and either locates the needed information by himself or looks on certain pages that you have indicated on the chalkboard or on a chart. When the majority have finished their reading, the group reassembles to pool and share the information they have found. Various children, in turn, designate the question they are concerned with, and then read one or more pertinent sentences from a book that help to answer the question. This plan of work gives practice in locating and evaluating reading material, and in reading both silently and orally in a purposeful social situation. It may include skimming, outlining, summarizing, and other reading skills.

One important phase of growth in reading is the expansion and enrichment of vocabulary. The unit of work not only encourages this development but actually makes it necessary. New terms and concepts are encountered in every aspect of the social-studies program. Children inevitably encounter new words and concepts in their reading. You can guide them to be sensitive to new words, to demand the meaning of a strange word or expression, and, after clarifying the concept involved, to use it themselves in their discussion, dramatic play, writing, and conversation. You can interest them in words and concepts by talking over the meanings of new words and new meanings for old words, as these are encountered, and by using them yourself. As boys and girls meet new words in their reading, they should use, or, if needed, be taught to use, the various clues to meaning that all readers use: the context, and structural and phonetic analysis. By structural analysis is meant the visual analysis of the word into syllables, especially the root word and any prefixes or suffixes. In the middle grades, pupils should learn to use, and have much practice in using, the dictionary. Learning to use the dictionary means not only being able to find the word in the alphabetical arrangement and reading a definition, but also selecting the appropriate meaning from several that may be given, noting the meaning of the word when used as different parts of speech, discovering the root and the several derived

forms, unlocking the pronunciation, and in many cases observing the spelling of the word.

Many teachers find it desirable to write some of the reading material used in the unit themselves. In the lower grades especially, but not exclusively, you will find that you can prepare



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New words can be learned by children in meaningful and practical ways in units of work.

charts that will fit the needs of your group better than anything else. These may provide needed information, summarize a group experience, give directions for a process, or remind pupils of agreed-upon standards of conduct. Sometimes you will duplicate the material, instead of making charts, so that each child may read his own copy silently. It is frequently necessary to re-write and duplicate material for the poorer readers so that they will not be frustrated and discouraged by the difficult content in the

available books. Occasionally, the required information is found only in adult books; you will need to simplify and re-write it for the entire group. Writing and duplicating such material require time and effort, but the dividends are great. Begin in a small way, and before long you will have a collection of invaluable materials for your group.

Do not think that informational materials alone are pertinent to the unit. Stories and poems make an indispensable contribution to sympathetic understanding of a people or a way of life. Historical fiction can give young people a far clearer and more complete understanding of the life of pioneers, colonists, or Indians than informational descriptions alone. And stories make it easy, if not inevitable, for the child to identify himself with the joys, sorrows, aspirations, and achievements of the particular group. The fact that stories and poems touch the emotions as well as the mind suggests that they should be shared and enjoyed, but not dissected and devitalized. This is not to deny that the story should portray faithfully the life and times of its characters, and that children should learn to be critical of the authenticity of the portrayal. Properly selected literature can contribute greatly to an enrichment of the experiences of the unit and, conversely, the unit can encourage enjoyment of good literature and the creation of standards of taste and appreciation. Not all children's literature will find a place in any social-studies unit. Make sure that children's experiences with literature are not limited to those within the unit itself.

ENCOURAGE EFFECTIVE USE OF LANGUAGE

The activities within the unit provide many occasions for the functional use of both oral and written language. Some of these occasions have been indicated in our suggestions for conducting discussions, guiding problem-solving, and encouraging sharing. Other uses of oral language include: presenting brief statements or reports, giving directions, justifying a point of view or a proposed action, convincing fellow pupils, and portraying in dra-

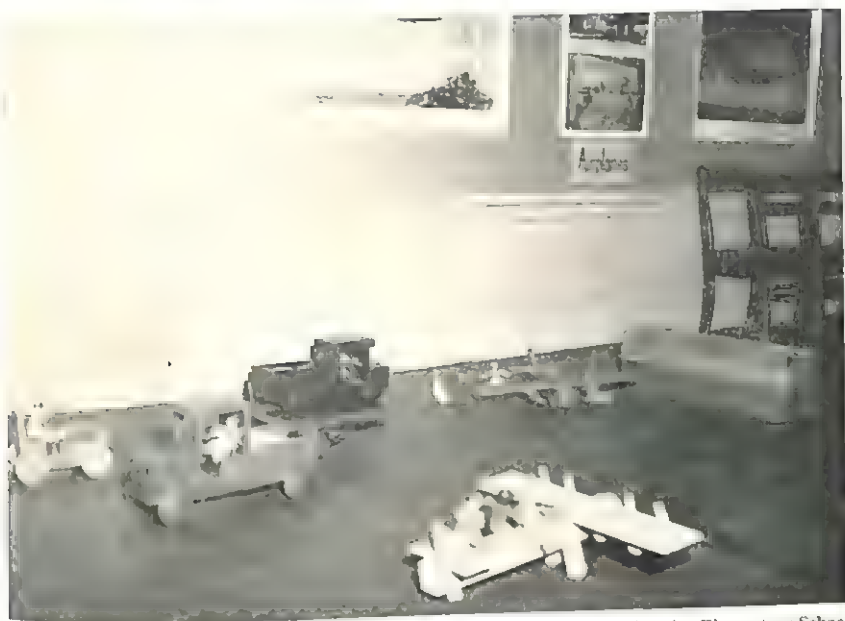
matic play the ideas and thoughts of others. Experiences in written language include: taking notes, making outlines, writing letters, keeping notebooks, composing stories and descriptions, and writing poetry. Listening, too, is frequently required. Remember that these demands for use of language occur in situations that are real to the child. He has in every case a motive for using language to achieve a real purpose. Your opportunity is to help him become more effective in his choice and use of words so that he will succeed in his purpose. You can do this in several ways: by helping your group formulate standards for the type of language to be used, to recognize and commend instances of good choice and use of words, and to build interest in communicating clearly, concisely, and appropriately. The emphasis may well be on the *effective* use of language to accomplish the purpose at hand. Do not interrupt a pupil in the midst of a presentation to correct a grammatical error. At that time, attention should be centered upon the effectiveness with which he is communicating his ideas or information. You may, of course, make notes of undesirable forms of usage as aids in planning future emphases in language improvement.

CAPITALIZE ON OPPORTUNITIES TO USE NUMBER

The unit of work, in many instances, presents opportunities for boys and girls to gain an understanding of the use and importance of number and quantity. Most teachers agree that an understanding of number concepts, relationships, and processes is best achieved in actual situations that require their use. Construction activities require not only frequent use of measurement but also the prior determination of the relative size and proportions of the articles to be made, whether these are wooden trucks, clay bowls, or cloth costumes. Understanding the life of a contemporary or historical society requires comparisons with our own way of life. Such questions as these must be asked and answered: How much could an individual or the group produce in a given time? How much did they have available for use as

food, clothing, shelter, and the like? How much more do we have? If their land was equally divided, how much did each person have? How did they measure and record time?

If a wall frieze is to be made by the group, there are the problems of over-all size, the amount of space to be allocated to indi-



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Number and measurement assume new importance and significance when used in construction.

viduals and groups, the quantity of paint on hand and needed. The amount of time to be devoted to different activities within a day or within the total unit is another practical problem. There is no space here to suggest all the numerical comparisons and quantitative problems that can serve to make understanding more precise and complete. You, the teacher, are the one to decide when vague and incomplete impressions can be made more accurate and rich by the use of quantitative facts or comparisons. By exploiting these legitimate uses of arithmetic to enrich the many learnings in the unit, you will build a founda-

tion of understanding of many of the arithmetical concepts and processes. You will not, in this way, meet all the pupils' needs for arithmetic. There should be systematic teaching of arithmetic also, but this can be facilitated by the vital, first-hand number experiences within the unit.

USE THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES OF THE COMMUNITY

Early in the chapter we suggested that you give consideration to persons in the community who have special knowledge or skills appropriate to your unit and who might be able to share them with your class. We also suggested possible field trips or excursions. The environment in which children live is such a rich source of learning experiences that it deserves further consideration.

As you find time, it will be profitable to make a somewhat systematic study of the local community in order to be aware of its potential contributions to the education of children. Try to become acquainted with such aspects of community life as these:

1. The history of the area.
2. The people—ethnic, social, and economic groups.
3. Types of homes in various areas.
4. Industries, businesses, occupations.
5. Natural resources, conservation, products—goods and services.
6. Government—governing body, courts, police, fire protection.
7. Transportation and communication.
8. Agencies furthering welfare, health, safety.
9. Recreation—parks, playgrounds, woods, rivers, seashore.
10. Cultural opportunities—libraries, museums, concerts, exhibits, theaters.
11. Local radio and television programs.

Carefully planned trips to appropriately chosen places in the community bring a vitality and challenge to children's learning that can be secured in no other way. We have suggested that you

select trips that make a maximum contribution to the unit, and that you first take the trip yourself, making all necessary arrangements for bringing your pupils. If a school bus is not available, you may need to plan carefully for suitable transportation. If the excursion is to yield maximum values, the pupils must join with you in detailed planning for the trip as outlined in Chapter 9.

The pupils must be impressed with the necessity of strict adherence to the formulated standards if the trip is to be safe and successful. Generally, you will arrange to have one or more parents or other adults accompany you and your class on the trip, to help in the supervision of the group and in avoiding accidents. In a walking trip to a nearby point, this may not be necessary.

The discussions following the trip may be as important as the trip itself in contributing to the pupils' learning. Each child will have contributions for the group, in terms of data secured, questions arising from the experience, or suggestions on next steps and on the use of new understandings and information secured on the trip. These new impressions may seek expression in many media: dramatic play, rhythms, construction, painting, modeling, written or oral language, exhibits, diagrams, maps, charts. The group may wish to share some of its new learnings with another class or with parents. Be sure that the children evaluate the behavior standards set up for the trip and their adherence to them. They may be able to suggest improvements in both the standards and the class observance of them, for use in future situations.

In some units, such as studies of the community, of conservation, or of protection of life and health, your class may be able to render an actual service to the community. In the modern city, many doors leading to actual participation in the work of the community are closed to children. Yet participation in activities that promote the general welfare is one of the best ways of building the attitudes and habits essential to the democratic citizen. Fortunately, boys and girls can contribute significantly

to campaigns for cleaning up or beautifying the community, to drives for the collection of paper, books, toys, or clothing, to fire-prevention and safety crusades, to conservation measures, and to Junior Red Cross activities. As you guide your pupils through the experiences of the unit, try to find opportunities for them to render an actual, valid service to the community. (See Chapter 9.)

PROVIDE VARIED OPPORTUNITIES FOR CREATIVE EXPRESSION

As we suggested earlier, learning normally includes two aspects. One is the taking in of new ideas, concepts, information, or insights. The other is an attempt to express in some way the impressions that have been received. Both aspects are essential, and learning is most effective when there is a constant interplay between the two. Generally, something is learned only partially and inadequately until the learner attempts to give it tangible expression. The urge to give expression to new learnings is an impelling one in children, and abundant opportunities for self-expression are not only highly satisfying but also make learning more precise, more complete, and more permanent. In guiding your pupils, make sure that they have access to numerous sources of information and, on the other hand, opportunity to express in many different media the new insights they are acquiring. You can provide for the "intake" aspect of learning through first-hand observation on field trips, manipulation and experimentation within the classroom, discussion with resource persons, and through the use of many printed sources of information and the varied forms of audio and visual aids. The "output" aspect may take the form of dramatic play, one of childhood's most natural avenues of expression. Other desirable forms of expression include painting, sketching, modeling, diagraming, singing, and the use of oral or written language.

The term creative expression is often used in referring to the child's attempt to reveal in tangible form his ideas and emotions.

There is no universal agreement on the meaning of the word "creative." It does suggest, however, that the child's product contains a certain amount of originality or uniqueness; that he has combined various elements from past experiences into a pattern or a composite that is different from that of anyone else. The amount of originality in the new product may be large or small; its quality and significance may be great or mediocre. In other words, types of expression range from the merely imitative and repetitive to the boldly and significantly original.

You can help your pupils express themselves in ways that are, at least to some extent, unique and creative. Here are some suggestions for stimulating and encouraging creative expression.

1. Maintain an atmosphere of mutual acceptance and security, with freedom from strain and tension.
2. Build sensitiveness to beauty—to good line and form in art, to good choice of words in prose and poetry.
3. Provide experiences that help pupils see more clearly, understand more fully, and hence express themselves more adequately.
4. Accept the child's product; enjoy it with him.
5. Respect the mediocre accomplishment, but reserve high praise for the truly superior product.
6. Invite constructive criticism of a product by the child's peers.
7. Encourage persistence and the sustained effort that produces superior performance.
8. Help children acquire skills that make their products more successful.

As you encourage and guide creative expression in these and other ways, your teaching, too, becomes creative and rewarding. The intimate connection between impression and expression in learning suggests the close relationship to the social-studies unit of fine and industrial arts, music, creative writing, and indeed all forms of expression. These become an essential part of the unit, and the activities of the unit provide motive and purpose for expression in the various arts.

Usually there will be, and should be, other experiences in the arts that are not closely connected with the work of the unit,

in order that children's experiences may be broad and well balanced.

CONSIDER A SUITABLE CULMINATION

A unit need not have a formal culmination, especially if it leads naturally into another unit without a definite break. In most units, however, your pupils will benefit from the efforts involved in planning and carrying out some well-chosen culminating activities. Just as attempts at creative expression are valuable correlatives of rich and vivid impressions, so the culmination is an attempt to give expression to some of the significant aspects of the whole unit. The culmination is valuable because it requires:

1. Recalling or reviewing previous learnings.
2. Evaluation of the relative importance of various data and experiences.
3. Perspective in viewing the many activities of the unit in their interrelationships (which could not be achieved earlier).
4. Perception of time sequences, cause-and-effect relationships, and major trends or principles, in contrast with specific items or details.
5. Selection and organization of data and activities appropriate to the purposes and type of culmination.

The culmination may include one or more types of activities. Sometimes an exhibit is appropriate. A simple play not only serves to summarize important learnings in the unit, but it also requires organization of ideas and functional use of language. Summarizing and reporting important learnings to another class group or at an assembly program for several classes can be valuable both to the pupils reporting and to those receiving the reports. Portrayal of a Mexican fiesta, Indian tribal ceremonies, the folk dances of a people, and similar cultural patterns may be an interesting and revealing part of the culmination. In any of the culminating activities suggested, there will probably be need for such visual materials as pictures, friezes, charts, and diagrams,

which the pupils must plan and make. To communicate to others the highlights and the essence of the prolonged study that the group has made of some important area will challenge their best abilities in thinking, organizing, and communicating.

EVALUATE THE SUCCESS OF THE UNIT

You cannot appraise the contribution of the unit to the development of your pupils by a standardized test or any single measuring device. The activities within the unit are so numerous and varied that only the broadest type of evaluation will suffice to indicate the many learnings that have taken place. Standard tests may measure improvement in some of the important skills. Information, grasp of concepts, perception of relationships, and other subject-matter learnings can be partially appraised through tests that you may make for your particular unit. You can observe this type of outcome day by day as pupils reveal their more or less adequate grasp of facts, concepts, and relationships in their dramatic play, their paintings, their oral or written communication—in any and all efforts to express what they are learning. Growth in ability to attack a problem and solve it, to participate constructively in the deliberations and work of a small or a larger group of children, to select and evaluate more critically one's own goals—such important learnings as these can be observed by the discerning teacher, but accurate instruments to measure them have yet to be devised. Growth in social sensitivity, in intellectual curiosity, and in ability to express one's self creatively is of great importance, all will agree. It too may be observed but not precisely measured. Your teaching will increase in significance as you become more sensitive to such learnings and better able to note the growth along these lines that occurs in your pupils.

No teacher can keep in mind all the observed needs of two or three dozen pupils, nor all the evidences of growth they reveal. Written notes made at intervals can be of great help. A particularly valuable type of note is the anecdotal record. This consists

of a concise statement describing an incident involving one or more pupils. The statement reports precisely what the pupil or pupils said and did. The teacher tries to avoid any interpretation of why the pupil acted as he did and any evaluation of his conduct. The aim is to make an accurate, objective report of what occurred. If earlier and later anecdotal records are compared, evidences of growth may be noted.

Your pupils should frequently evaluate their own progress toward goals they have accepted as desirable. The need for this is obvious in relation to the standards that have been formulated in various areas of learning or behavior. Such self-evaluation may be profitable in any aspect of the work, however, and may lead to more explicit recognition of worthy goals that previously were only vaguely sensed.

Your evaluation of your pupils' growth will be improved if you keep a memorandum of the areas in which improvement is being sought at any one time, and of the special needs of particular children. You can also improve specific subject-matter learnings by selecting from each phase of the unit those concepts and basic understandings that you consider essential and by checking on the extent to which they have been learned.

Summary

The planning of a unit of work involves several basic considerations. Objectives should be specific, attainable, and related to the broad goals of elementary education. A variety of activities and materials should be included. A plan for initiating the unit, and opportunities for dramatic play, construction, pupil planning, discussion, sharing, and problem-solving should be considered in light of previous experiences of the group. Attention should also be given to the improvement of reading and study skills, use of oral and written language, and number skills. Creative expression through art, music, language and rhythms should not be overlooked. A suitable culmination and techniques for evaluating the unit are also essential in a complete plan for a unit of work.

As indicated in the preceding pages, self-discipline, democratic group behavior, and effective group processes are essential to the development of units of work. Attention is given to these problems in the next two chapters. Consideration is given to practical principles and techniques that can be employed as learning experiences are developed.

References for Further Reading

- Burr, James B., L. W. Harding, and L. B. Jacobs, *Student Teaching in the Elementary School*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950. Chapter V points out ways in which units of work help to integrate learning; planning guides are presented, along with characteristics of effective units of work.
- Burton, W. H., *The Guidance of Learning Activities*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952 (Revised Edition). Chapter XII discusses types of units, use of subject matter, selection of units, unit planning, and related topics.
- Hockett, John A., and E. W. Jacobsen, *Modern Practices in the Elementary School*. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1943. Chapters II-VI offer specific suggestions on the preparation of units and the teacher's role in developing a unit with children.
- Macomber, F. G., *Guiding Child Development in the Elementary School*. New York: American Book Company, 1941. Chapters II-VI present specific details for use in planning and developing units of work; many concrete examples are given.
- Michaelis, John U., *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950. Chapter VI gives a step-by-step treatment of unit planning, with concrete illustrations; a sample unit is presented in the Appendix; relationships among areas of the curriculum are shown.
- Wiles, Kimball, *Teaching for Better Schools*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. Chapter VIII contains a statement of specific suggestions for use in guiding group planning.
- Wofford, Kate V., *Teaching in Small Schools*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946. Chapter V discusses the planning of long term units of work; objectives, initiation, related activities, and correlations with skill subjects are considered.

6

Self-Discipline and Group Behavior

THE WORD "discipline" has been common among teachers and parents for a great many years. Its connotations have often included physical punishment or at least a rigidity of control that was more autocratic than democratic. Rules were set up, usually without consultation with the individuals concerned, and were enforced by rewards or punishments that were not in any way related to reasonable consequences. Since sound educational philosophy demands the development of intelligent self-control rather than blind obedience, the term "discipline," with all it has meant, is in disrepute. This does not in any way imply that modern educators expect pupils to participate in antisocial behavior or to interfere with the efficiency of certain educational activities. Rather, it means emphasis upon self-control, pupil control, orderly conduct, responsible judgment, consideration, cooperation, helpfulness, and the like, for these imply a higher level of democratic living than does the word "discipline."

The effective teacher recalls the knowledge he has gained about children and makes use of it in planning instructional activities. Since unacceptable behavior is learned as well as desirable behavior, it should not be looked upon as a malady to be treated, but as an effect, the cause of which needs to be explored and either removed or compensated for. Some kinds of behavior, such as a short attention span, may be perfectly normal to the child's developmental level, and may demand consideration when teaching plans are being made. Undesirable conduct may also result from an individual's reaction to others of his group

because of certain individual differences, such as race, economic level, social position, physical appearance, home restrictions, special abilities, and language variations. Successful control must be based on understanding and must be democratic in character.

The behavior of members of a school group depends on a combination of factors. The alert teacher is constantly gathering information and assessing the relative importance of each item or combination of items so that he can achieve more and more effective teaching. Many of the ingredients of behavior cannot satisfactorily be measured and weighed with anything approaching scientific accuracy. Instead, dependence must be placed on the sensitivity and judgment of the teacher. This means, of course, that he must be a person who combines some of the best qualities of saint, artist, and scientist; the teacher is only as effective as his combination of desirable qualities is perfect. However, no one should expect to solve all the problems involved in social behavior nor should he throw up his hands in dismay and fail to make the contribution of which he is capable.

INTERACTION OF PERSONALITIES

The personalities of the children who make up a given group are important factors in determining how each individual will develop as a term progresses. Although the total effect produced by the many characteristics that make up an individual determine his so-called "personality," we can profitably examine certain specific aspects of personality. Let us consider briefly certain personality traits of teachers, children, and parents; the latter are included because they exert an important though indirect influence upon successful pupil control.

The most important trait of a teacher is his *evident* and *sincere* concern for each pupil. Many people are concerned about others but fail to show it. One must notice little things about pupils and make comments accordingly; perhaps Julia has a new sweater, George has combed his hair neatly, John's hands are

clean, Joe has brought a bug for the class to see, Alice has a new baby brother, Carol is going on a vacation trip, Carl has cleared up his desk, Mary has written an interesting poem, Susan has lost a baby tooth. A pleasant greeting, a word of encouragement, a helping hand, a pat on the shoulder, displaying good work on the bulletin board—all are ways in which a teacher can show that he really has concern for individual pupils.

Less important but not to be overlooked among desirable teacher characteristics are voice quality, dress and grooming, physical fitness, and mannerisms. The voice is usually most pleasant to listen to and least irritating over long periods of time if it is relatively low in pitch and just loud enough to be heard comfortably by the listener. With young children (kindergarten and primary ages) the teacher will need to dramatize, strongly but sincerely, by both voice and bodily expression, in order to gain and hold interest; less vigorous dramatization is effective at intermediate and upper grade levels. The beginning teacher will do well to practice speaking slowly and with a show of confidence, no matter how he may feel inwardly.

Children respond well to a teacher (other things being equal) who occasionally comes to school with a new tie or new dress. A retiring child was observed to come unobtrusively to a teacher's side and to stroke the sleeve of his new suit, saying softly but earnestly, "I like your new suit." Less shy children may quite normally be expected to ask the price and place of purchase and perhaps follow with a description of Father's favorite suit. A teacher who cares for his clothing and person is usually more effective in promoting similar habits and attitudes among the children he teaches. Remember that children expect teachers to look like mature professional adults and not to maintain the informal collegiate appearance reminiscent of school boys and girls.

Sometimes a teacher's mannerisms of speech or action are so easy to mimic that children entirely ignore his good qualities. Ask your friends to point out offensive or striking mannerisms that need to be curtailed or avoided. Beware of affected accent,

overuse of certain words or phrases, pacing back and forth while talking, displaying excessive emotion over minor matters, and chewing a pencil, finger nails, or a wisp of one's hair. A calm, soft-spoken, sincere, self-assured, pleasant person will be most successful in encouraging these same characteristics in children.

The personality of each child in a classroom group has its effect on group control. One child who is extremely unstable may so affect others that activities need to be more highly organized and carefully supervised than would otherwise be necessary. (See Chapter 8, pages 172-175.) Pupils and teachers have been known to say, "This was a perfect day—Ernest was absent." Try to help each child discover the effect of his personality on others, how to improve it, and how to help others make necessary adjustments.

Parents are frequently insensitive to the devastating effects their personalities have, and have had, on their children. A blustering, domineering father may cause his son to be a day-dreamer who tries to escape from the pressures of life. An overindulgent mother may find her child selfish, inconsiderate, whimpering. A perfectionist parent may prevent a child from developing normal self-direction and confidence. You will need to know parent personalities in order to understand children. Home calls and conferences with parents help to provide information to supplement and modify the impressions of home personalities supplied by children. Consult your supervising teacher regarding policies of home visitation in your school.

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

Certain environmental factors other than the personalities of teacher, pupil, and parent affect pupil control in varying degrees. A home that suffers by comparison with those of a child's schoolmates may be a cause of undesirable behavior. In some cases, comfort may be less important than appearance. The quality of housekeeping may be more important than the quality of furniture. Concentrate on trying to discover how the child *feels*

about his home when he compares it with the homes of the children by whom he wishes to be recognized. An unfavorable comparison may cause a child to seek recognition and compensation by undesirable behavior. Parents may need to be helped to understand and to reckon with the child's needs in this respect. Doing so may involve a delicate problem in diplomacy.

A home that provides children with a diet unsuited to healthy physical development creates potential difficulties. The child may be irritable, easily tired, or unattractive, with all the attendant emotional difficulties. This problem has been met in some schools by providing adequate meals at school, by conferring with parents about improving the child's diet, and by calling the situation to the attention of the school nurse. Likewise, a home in which children do not get adequate rest may lead to irritability or drowsiness in school. Adjust to these situations by providing rest periods or by conferring with parents.

Neighborhood play conditions may be factors in antisocial behavior: Children naturally play, and if reasonable space and equipment are not available, they may develop undesirable attitudes and habits. They may throw rocks at power-post insulators, cats, windows of vacant houses, or at other children. Minor thefts from houses and stores may become part of a game. They may take to fighting. They may establish gangs to force contributions from non-members. The results of such activity, which is expected in meager neighborhood environments that lack desirable leadership, are certain to be carried into the schoolroom or onto the school playground. Correction of unfavorable out-of-school play conditions must be made the concern of parents and other community personnel. Doing so may involve cooperative planning of children, parent-teacher groups, recreation officials, and other influential organizations and individuals.

EDUCATIONAL VALUES

Undoubtedly the day-to-day working philosophy of school officials and teachers has a great influence on matters of pupil

control. Self-direction and self-control do not easily arise from situations in which orders are given for each task, threats are made, or grades are overemphasized. The child who is more concerned with the grade he will get on his report card than with the skills, habits, and understandings he acquires is more likely to cheat and to engage in other undesirable behavior. Consider



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Children develop self-discipline by working with significant purposes in mind.

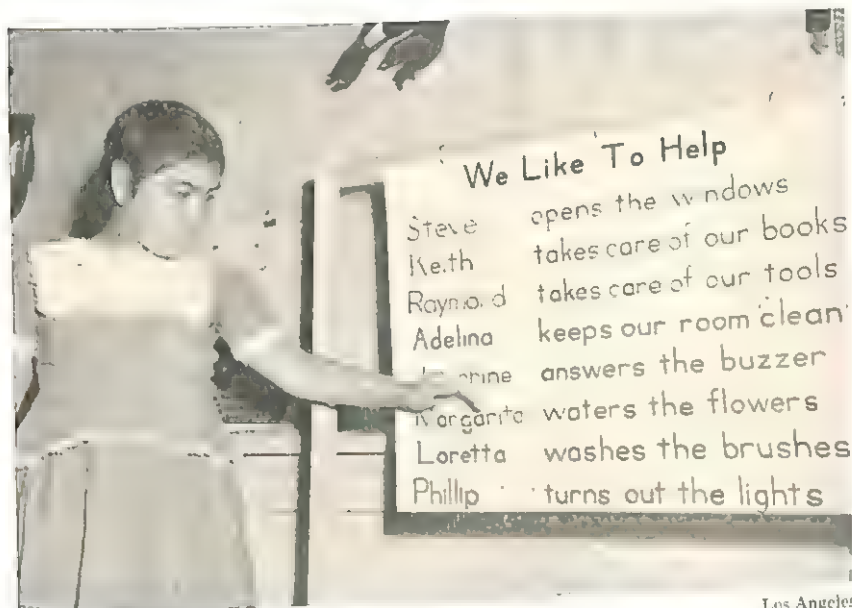
carefully the consequences of building in the mind of pupils and parents the fetish of unrelated reward for activity; remember that marks, gold stars, and honor rolls are not of themselves desirable ends. Try to guide attention toward the satisfactions that can be achieved by satisfying one's needs now and in days to come. Identifying such needs and planning appropriate activities should result from the cooperative endeavor of teachers, pupils, curriculum-makers, school officials, and parents. Although you may never reach the ideal goal of creating completely intrinsic motivation, it is an end worth striving toward.

Teachers frequently give major emphasis to learnings that involve skills and information while they overlook learnings that involve attitudes, appreciations, and cooperative behavior. Some teachers place such emphasis on tests and daily papers that children feel impelled to cheat and to develop a sense of values incompatible with wholesome standards of behavior. If you really mean what you say about the development of characteristics essential to successful democratic living, you must plan and teach accordingly. You must develop purposes, activities, and evaluation procedures that will neither give a distorted picture of achievements nor tear down what has already been accomplished.

SELF-DISCIPLINE AND SELF-EVALUATION

Self-discipline is encouraged by pupil participation in setting standards of conduct for such activities as excursions, recess periods, committee projects, assemblies, recreational reading, diagnostic testing, and class discussions. After or during an activity, try to guide the children in evaluating their conduct in terms of the standards they themselves have set. Such evaluations are far more productive in the long run than are evaluations made by the teacher according to standards he alone has set. You may find it helpful to make notes of the successes achieved by individual children in suggesting desirable standards, in adhering to standards, and in evaluating their own successes in following the standards agreed upon. Such notes, accumulated over a period of several weeks, provide more useful data for the improvement of democratic habits than do any number of test scores. Some teachers help pupils to use self-evaluation check lists. These are most effective when the items listed are taken from suggestions made by the children under the guidance of the teacher rather than when they are prepared in advance by the teacher. If standards are suggested by the teacher alone, they may or may not be considered desirable and acceptable by the boys and girls. The fact that the teacher on his own may list more fundamental

items, word them better, or arrange them in more logical order is not of nearly so much importance as having children think constructively about standards for their own social behavior. Following are examples of self-evaluation check lists developed



Los Angeles

A clear understanding of individual responsibilities helps in self-discipline and group control.

by youngsters under the guidance of their teachers. Each list was printed by the teacher on tagboard and hung up on a wall chart.

Note that only a few items are listed in each chart. Children cannot be expected to keep in mind many standards at once—the less mature they are, the fewer the items they can retain. As certain standards become habit, you may want to change the charts by retaining those items still to be worked on and by adding new ones. Different sets of standards can be established for different activities, such as listening to reports, physical education, art, discussion. Note also on the above charts that the

GOOD WORKERS

We come in quietly.
We hang up our coats.
We sit in the circle.

*(Grade I)***WHEN WE PLAN**

We take turns talking.
We listen to others.
We ask questions.
We help answer questions.

*(Grade III)***GOOD LISTENERS**

Look at the speaker.
Do not interrupt.
Look pleasant.
Have questions ready.
Remember important points.

*(Grade VI)***CLASSROOM COURTESY**

Walk in from recess and go to your seats.
Keep your hands to yourself.
Raise your hand before speaking.
Get permission to speak to other pupils.
Share books and materials with other pupils.

(Grade VI)

sixth-grade teacher led the children to set rather formal standards. This was because she was a beginning teacher and felt somewhat insecure in her control over the pupils. Later charts showed a trend toward more informal statements.

PLANNING

Of great importance in the matter of pupil control is the preparation you make in planning daily activities. Be guided by the nature of the particular group of boys and girls involved. In addition to the matters discussed in foregoing pages, remember

that every healthy, normal child is an active one. If your planning does not provide for him during the entire day, he may select activities of his own that may not be of the kind you or other members of the group find desirable. Most children like to feel that what they are doing is worth while; they don't like "busy work" or activities from which they can see no possibility of reasonably immediate return. Furthermore, they demand that projects be interesting. If you provide a variety of procedures, you may be able to make even hard work interesting. Since you cannot always foresee children's reactions to the plans you make, be sure to discuss your plans with the boys and girls. This does not imply that you will not have done any thinking or planning in advance, but rather that whatever you have done is tentative and open to modification. Guide the discussion in a way that gives children a feeling of having made a really substantial contribution to the planning. This procedure not only helps insure that important considerations have been met but also provides motivation, since children, like adults, frequently prefer doing what *they* have planned rather than what has been planned *for* them.

In your planning, consider how routine matters such as distributing and collecting supplies or equipment can be carried out without confusion or excessive waiting. Monitors are useful in this matter. Remember to have standards set for monitors as well as for those who receive help from monitors.

Get routine procedures well in hand so that you will be free to give major attention to the planning, development, and evaluation of rich learning experiences for children. Also, children will learn a great deal about "good housekeeping" through the continued use of systematic routines. The two examples below are illustrative.

1. Assembling and dismissing pupils:
 - (a) Line up informally at a signal from the teacher.
 - (b) Enter the building on a second signal without boisterous behavior, shoving, or pushing.
 - (c) Conversation should cease as pupils enter the rooms.

- (d) Pupils should take seats promptly and begin rest period, or work.
- (e) In dismissing pupils, have them put their work away, come to attention, and leave by rows, one row at a time.
- 2. In passing and collecting paper, supplies, and work materials:
 - (a) Have the first pupil in the row, or the monitor if one has been designated, distribute material for his row efficiently and without any disturbance.
 - (b) Collection can be handled by having last pupil in row, or the monitor, gather up the materials. Each pupil should place his paper, or other material, on the corner of the desk to facilitate collection.

Emergencies, too, must be thought about in advance, and proper precautions must be taken. Fingers may be cut in carving, bruises may result from active play, paint or ink may be spilled, glass may be broken: think with children about such possibilities and about how they may be met, so that if accidents do occur, group control will not get out of hand.

Planning that provides for flexibility when difficulties make original plans untenable is likely to add to your feeling of security and also to make it possible for you to adapt to the new situation without losing control. By having alternate ideas in mind, you can stem the children's resentment and turn negative situations into positive ones. For example, it begins to rain. The second grade can't go on their planned walk to the bakery. You say to the children, "Shall we go later this afternoon if it clears, or wait till tomorrow morning? It's too bad that we can't go for our walk. Since we must stay in, shall we play in our room bakery, hear a story about the baker, or go downstairs to talk with our cafeteria manager about her sandwich bread?" Most experienced teachers have no difficulty controlling this kind of situation because they are ready with a number of possible plans, any one of which has been found successful in the past. However, even experienced teachers must plan beforehand in order to suggest an activity that will lead to significant learning. Avoid having to fall back on such activities as reading another chapter

of a story book, engaging in "free" drawing, or exchanging jokes and riddles.



San Diego

Discipline problems are at a minimum when children are busy at work. Plan independent activities for children after they have completed group work.

Your planning should also provide for activities that require cooperation and the exercise of other democratic habits, attitudes, and skills. The use of a teeter-totter at the kindergarten level forces two children to cooperate if they are to have fun. A committee report in the sixth grade requires children to work together. Organized games require social give and take. On the other hand, individual play or work activities provide few opportunities for children to learn and practice socially acceptable behavior.

PUNISHMENT VERSUS REASONABLE CONSEQUENCES

When children misbehave, avoid punishing them as though you wanted to "get even." Be careful not to display anger or

dismay. It is better to be firm but calm and to apply "natural consequences." Instead of keeping after school the child who dashes down the stairs disturbing children at work in the other rooms, setting an incorrect pattern for his fellows, endangering himself, and showing poor manners, try having him wait until everyone else has passed, or personally escort him on subsequent occasions until he can be trusted to exercise better self-control and judgment as he goes from classroom to playground. Since you will not always be able to think of appropriate natural consequences or will not be able to make use of them under certain circumstances, you will sometimes have to choose substitute devices. For example, the child who, contrary to regulations, plays on the newly finished gymnasium floor while he is wearing hob-nailed shoes should as a natural consequence be required to repair the damage. Since he cannot do this, he may be required instead to help the custodian in order to compensate in part for the extra work of repair. Such work should, of course, be done during out-of-school time. Other examples of reasonable consequences related to specific problems are: having a child who runs to get out of the room first wait until the others have left, and having a child return to his seat when he pushes others while standing in line.

If one child seriously hampers a group activity, avoid inflicting the consequences on the whole group. Sometimes the members of a group will discipline a particular child for spoiling their fun. Group pressure may be very effective and should be permitted as long as the methods used and the results achieved are reasonably in keeping with principles of democracy and mental hygiene. However, when you take the whole group to task for the offenses of one or two, the whole group will react against you. Class morale will fall and you will find yourself in the role of a dictator—or, in the children's eyes, a tyrant. All the children, including the offender, are likely to understand that it is necessary to deal with offenses in order to prevent a desired group activity from being hampered.

Responsibility and Liberty

Many teachers find it helpful to discuss with children the democratic principle of liberty: We have as much freedom as we can use wisely; if we misuse it, we lose it. A child may have the privilege of working at the art center after he has finished an assignment, but if he abuses the privilege by not completing his project or by disturbing others as he paints, the freedom is withdrawn until he can be depended upon. Even the right to go to school may be curtailed if the child is considered "incorrigible." In many states laws have been passed to that effect. Exclusion from school should be ordered only by the school principal and, of course, only as a last resort.

Confidence in Children

Since most children like to feel that the teacher has confidence in them, they usually respond favorably when confidence is shown. One first-grade teacher told the boys and girls of her class that they could be trusted to walk unsupervised to the lunch room. Later they reported how well they had done. Children typically respond to the trust of their teachers, especially when confidence is shown in a variety of situations.

Consistency and Pupil Understanding

Many well-meaning teachers find pupil control difficult mainly because they are inconsistent. Children like and respect even very strict teachers, provided they are consistent from day to day and from child to child. Boys and girls need the security of knowing what reactions to expect from the teacher as various activities are undertaken. Consistency can be achieved through careful planning, and through development and review of clear standards.

Elementary-school children are generally greatly concerned over injustice, be it real or imagined. When you undertake differentiated treatment to meet special needs, be sure the group

understands the reasons for it. A badly crippled boy who had been kept at home and tutored until he was eleven years old found it very difficult to adjust to group participation in the fifth grade of a public school. As soon as his difficulty became evident, the teacher sent the boy on an errand and then explained to the other children the situation he was facing and how all of them might help, partly by ignoring minor misbehavior that would not be overlooked in others. The children cooperated very well in helping the unfortunate newcomer and, although the term was difficult for the teacher, it would probably have been impossible to have "socialized" the crippled boy without the support of the other class members. On the other hand, some teachers earn the disrespect of many of the children by showing obvious and unjustified favoritism or by "picking on" certain pupils.

SPECIFIC PROBLEMS

Temper tantrums frequently occur among children in kindergarten or first grade. Such outbursts indicate an immature adjustment to frustration. They usually cease as children find more satisfactory methods of achieving the ends sought or as they learn to control their desires. Only very rarely are tantrums observed in children beyond the lower primary grades. Usually the best treatment is to ignore the child and to engage the other children in activities away from the scene. For example, in a kindergarten class, a child who lies on the floor kicking his feet and screaming might be left alone to deprive him of the satisfaction of attracting attention. Other children can be given free play with blocks, toys, or modeling clay. Still others may paint, draw on a chalkboard, or experiment with rhythm instruments. In most cases, the tantrum will cease in a few minutes. In some cases, it may be necessary to confer with your supervising teacher to determine special steps to take. In classroom situations that make it difficult for the teacher to ignore the situation, the child may have to be picked up bodily and carried to a vacant room where the prin-

cial, school nurse, or some other person can see that he does not seriously hurt himself or damage school property while he is getting back his self-control.

Beginning teachers frequently make the mistake of giving instructions or starting a discussion before getting the attention of all the children. This practice leads to discourtesy and interferes with the efficiency of group work. Through discussion, establish the importance of paying attention at once when you or a pupil is ready to begin an activity, start a discussion, or give instructions. Merely standing before the group and waiting for attention may not be sufficient, especially when the habit has not been fixed; you may be left waiting indefinitely. A prearranged signal may be needed, such as playing a chord on the piano, ringing a small bell, tapping on the desk with a pencil, clapping your hands, or asking for attention in a clear, firm voice just loud enough to be heard above the room noise. An imaginative teacher will find some unusual and pleasant sound, such as an elephant bell, a Chinese gong, or an Indian drum, to help make the signal more appealing and to soften the intrusion upon the children's activities. Habituate the children to whatever signal is agreed upon. On the playground, a whistle may be best. Children will usually be impressed when you remind them of how much time they are losing from their activities when they are slow in giving attention. One teacher successfully persuaded a group of boys to "stop in their tracks" when he blew his whistle on the playground by not only showing how play time was otherwise lost but by explaining how high-school and college coaches made use of a whistle to gain immediate attention in order that team and individual instruction might be given. He implied that habits of quick response had to start early if athletic abilities were to be developed.

Control problems can be reduced in discussion activities if the teacher or pupil-leader asks questions first and afterward calls on a pupil to answer. In this way each child must listen to the question or the comment. Similarly, children should be encouraged to listen to the statements or questions of fellow pupils,

thus making it unnecessary for the leader to repeat what each person says. Also, try to draw all the members of the group into the discussion, especially those whose attention wanders easily. Just looking at these children or moving near them may be effective. Keeping your vocabulary simple and your sentences uninvolved will help too.

Some Common Problems

Here are a few common problems that frequently cause difficulty. After each problem is a brief statement of suggestions that have worked for other teachers. View them as "possible things to do," not as rule-of-thumb procedures to be followed indiscriminately.

1. *Problem:* Rowdyism when entering classroom.

Suggestions: Stand near door inside room. Direct traffic; speak pleasantly and cheerfully to those needing and earning it; caution children who are pushing or otherwise causing disturbance; suggest desirable activity as needed; avoid negative comments as much as possible; notice new clothes, neatly combed hair, and other items deserving recognition. Having children take a rest period may help get the next period off to a good start.

2. *Problem:* Loud noise and confusion when it is time to begin a class period.

Suggestions: As they come into room, have children take a rest period; you may then begin speaking in a low voice. Read for a few minutes from a story book. Praise those who are ready to listen and call them by name. Remind children of standards they have previously set, under teacher guidance, for this activity. Stand beside the child whose conduct is least desirable; if necessary, place a hand on his shoulder, firmly but kindly. Think through in advance some interesting ways to begin the period, but do not let the children start the activity until they have given satisfactory attention. Be specific in organizing the class so that every child will know exactly what he is expected to do.

3. *Problem:* Rushing and pushing when dismissed.

Suggestions: Near end of activity, notify the children that it is time to start putting away materials and clearing up as needed. Hold

a short evaluation period. Dismiss first those who have assumed an orderly position and attitude: you may dismiss a table or a row group at a time as you see that all the members are ready. You may need to stand near the door. If passage from room to playground is a source of trouble, appoint a leader for each of two lines, or personally escort those members of the group who are still not responsible for their own conduct in leaving the room.

4. *Problem:* Inattention, shouting, and pushing while supplies or books are being distributed.

Suggestions: Appoint monitors (helpers) to pass out supplies while the other children keep their seats. Choose children who need recognition and who might get out of hand if they are required to sit still while waiting for materials: of course, withdraw the privilege of helping if it is abused, but make clear to the child involved that he may again be appointed when he has shown that he can be depended upon. Praising those who do well as monitors may help you keep from scolding or criticizing a child who is careless or obviously trying to attract attention by misusing his privilege. Do the same for those at their seats. By having helpers, you will be free to move near a child who becomes overly excited. Often planning or discussion can go on while materials are being distributed.

5. *Problem:* Undue commotion during work or play periods.

Suggestions: Give signal for attention. Discuss standards for the activity involved. Help children to see reasons for rules agreed upon (safety, keep from bothering nearby classes, hear instructions). Change assignments or group memberships if necessary. If difficulty continues, withdraw an individual from a group and have him work or play by himself, dissolve an entire group by giving members individual assignments, or change the activity for the entire class to one that can be more easily managed. Later, when you have better group control, you may wish to try the abandoned activity again.

SUGGESTIONS FROM FORMER STUDENT TEACHERS

A summary of specific suggestions on discipline made by student teachers themselves concludes this chapter. Each suggestion was provided by students who had just completed their teaching assignments. Approximately one hundred student

teachers were asked to respond to the following question: "What suggestions can you make to help future student teachers on problems of discipline?" *The most practical and frequently made responses follow.*

1. Learn class standards, daily schedule, regulations for use of materials, and classroom routines early in the term; adhere to them in your work with pupils.

2. Observe and follow disciplinary measures used by your supervising teacher, making any exceptions upon the basis of conferences with the supervising teacher or supervisor of student teaching.

3. Seek advice and help from your supervising teacher and supervisor as special problems arise; do not delay in seeking assistance on problems or questions that arise.

4. Follow through and see that suggestions, standards, and classroom routines are carried out in your work with children.

5. Always show respect for the supervising teacher, principal, and other school workers.

6. Be firm, consistent, and businesslike in relations with pupils from the very beginning of the term. Have definite, well-prepared plans for work so that all children will have plenty to do at all times.

7. Be helpful and courteous to all pupils; show sincere interest in their problems. Have a sense of humor and laugh with the group now and then.

8. Never embarrass a pupil by making pointed suggestions in front of others. Avoid the use of sarcasm and ridicule. Be sure that pupils understand why specific suggestions are made to them. Never mimic pupil misbehavior or carry on in a childlike way; be a mature adult who exhibits self-control at all times.

9. Arrange individual conferences with troublesome pupils so that constructive, firm suggestions can be made in a systematic, clear, and helpful manner.

10. Avoid "over-friendliness" and "over-solicitousness," because if your behavior is excessive in this respect and differs greatly from that of other teachers in the school, it will be misunderstood and *misinterpreted by pupils; they will think you are "a softy," are easy to push around, or are not sure of yourself.*

11. Avoid a belligerent "dare you to do it" attitude that may

challenge some pupils to become hecklers just for the fun of it. Some pupils like to "knock chips off shoulders."

12. Be fair and never punish the whole group for something done by one or two individuals in the group.

13. Maintain a calm and dignified approach to difficulties; never lose your temper, shout, or talk in a loud and nervous manner.

14. Expect difficulties to arise and "set-backs" to occur; go to work to overcome them immediately.

15. Determine the basic causes of difficulties through a study of the child, including home background as well as health, school, and other records.

16. In organizing committees and other working groups, select children who get along well together; be alert to cliques, personal antagonisms, and other inter-personal relationships that lead to misbehavior. Remember, however, that guidance is needed to help children overcome them and that good teachers help children meet problems.

17. Keep your own mental health on a high level by getting plenty of rest, making effective plans, having a sense of humor, being attractive in appearance, and getting help when needed.

Self-discipline and democratic group behavior are strengthened by many experiences. Of great importance are the experiences that children have in the different groups of which they are members. In fact, children become truly social only as they engage in experiences with other persons. Hence the importance of effective group techniques should not be underestimated. The next chapter gives attention to principles and procedures of special significance in the elementary school.

Suggestions for Further Reading

Association for Childhood Education, *Discipline, An Interpretation*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Childhood Education International, 1948.

This pamphlet is made up of seven articles dealing with various phases of the problem of discipline.

Association for Childhood Education, *Discipline for Freedom*, Reprint Service Bulletin No. 23. Washington, D.C.: Association for Childhood Education International, 1951. Contains articles by a dozen authors, each discussing in his own way various aspects of developing self-discipline.

- Baruch, Dorothy Walter, *New Ways in Discipline*. New York: Whittlesey House, 1949. Especially useful to parents, but also helpful to teachers.
- Burr, James B., Lowry W. Harding, and Leland B. Jacobs, *Student Teaching in the Elementary School*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950. Chapter 7 presents an excellent point of view and gives many practical suggestions for student teachers and beginning teachers.
- Cutts, Norma E., and Nicholas Mosley, *Better Home Discipline*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952. While intended principally for parents, this book contains much help for teachers in working with children and in helping parents to develop desirable relationships with their children.
- Hymes, James L., Jr., *Teacher Listen, the Children Speak*. New York: Committee on Mental Health, 1949. Some good sense about discipline offered in an interesting style.
- Schorling, Raleigh, and G. Max Wingo, *Elementary-school Student Teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950. Chapter 5 offers a good treatment of the topic with the student teacher in mind. The check lists presented are particularly useful.
- Sheviakov, George V., and Fritz Redl, *Discipline for Today's Children and Youth*, Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1949. Presents a fine description of desirable discipline, together with helpful examples of what to do.
- Wiles, Kimball, *Teaching for Better Schools*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. Chapter IV summarizes specific techniques that can be used to improve human relations in the classroom. Chapter VII indicates ways in which the teacher can help a group develop self-control.

7

Using Group Processes

As you observe competent teachers at work, you will discover that they use group processes effectively in a variety of situations. Group discussion, sharing, planning, doing, and evaluating are significant activities in all areas of the curriculum. Group-action skills are essential in clubs, social activities, and student government. Creative group work is frequently planned and developed in connection with expression in art, music, and language. Children in play groups require expert guidance in getting along with others, accepting decisions based on established rules, and playing fairly. These activities are typical of the many that call for skill in using effective group processes with elementary-school children.

This chapter gives attention to specific and practical points to keep in mind as you plan and develop various types of group experiences with elementary-school children. Selected examples of group enterprises are presented, along with suggestions for their use. Attention is given to special points to remember in working with children in both primary and upper grades. Illustrative charts, check lists, and plans used by successful teachers are also included.

Remember, though, that guiding the group behavior of children does not lend itself to a cut-and-dried formula. Human behavior and growth are far too complex to be reduced to "cook-book recipes." You will therefore want to consider the content of this chapter as suggestive of what you might do. Your ultimate success in the guidance of group work will depend on your understanding of, and deep insights into, the nature of group

processes, and on the creative guidance that you as a student teacher will be able to provide for the effective group living of your pupils.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES

The term "group processes" refers to the ways in which individuals work together in solving problems of common concern. Effective group processes in the elementary school include several elements, such as: concern for others; feelings of belonging and of security; willingness to assume responsibility; solving problems of common group concern; cooperation in planning, doing, and evaluating; pride in successful group achievement; and an emotional climate that is conducive to effective social living.

The following principles have proved helpful to many teachers in developing and guiding effective group processes in the elementary school. They apply to various types of group work and constitute a workable set of guide-lines for use in planning and developing group experiences.

1. Recognize that in order to have a group, individual members must identify themselves behaviorally with the group and must exhibit interdependent behavior among themselves.¹ When children effectively pool their contributions in solving problems of common concern, the experience is more meaningful than when any one child makes an individual contribution. A new and broader experience, significant to all concerned, emerges from interaction in which each child shares to his maximum capacity and in accordance with his past experiences and understandings.

2. Cultivate a climate in which each child feels that he has a part to play in the activities of the group. Each child should feel free to express his beliefs, opinions, and ideas with the full expectation that they will be respected by other members of the group. Each child should feel free to question constructively any proposed action or any data submitted by any other member of the group.

¹ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Group Processes in Supervision*, p. 24. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1948.

3. Secure the participation of each child in the group. Note individual potentialities and differences and attempt to secure varied contributions. By all means, respect and accept each child's contributions, in order to engender feelings of belonging, security, and confidence.

4. "Start where each child (and the group) is." Levels of development vary from child to child as well as from group to group.



University School, Indiana University

Group work is essential to the success of activities.

Careful study of your group as well as the group techniques used by your supervising teacher will help you in planning where and how to start working with your group.

5. Try to extend the social understandings of the children continuously. Through proper guidance, you will be able to help each child move from relatively egocentric types of behavior to the broader aspects of social conduct. As a child develops toward maturity, and as his social contacts become more numerous and meaningful, he normally increases his skill and general competence in group work.

6. Help children to become increasingly independent in their group work. As children gain maturity and skill in group processes, increasing amounts of independence in the solution of common problems may be delegated to them. The length of time that you leave children on their own in group work must be governed by their demonstrated ability to handle problems effectively and independently.

7. Study continuously the behavioral changes that are taking place within the group. Attempt to discover any isolates, as well as children who antagonize others or retard the progress of the group. The sociometric techniques that you have learned will prove very helpful to you at this point. Conferences with parents will also help you to work out effective solutions to specific problems.

8. Seek to develop good listening habits among the members of the group. Knowing when to talk and when to listen are essential ingredients of effective group participation.

9. Attempt to keep the subgroups in the classroom relatively small. Children at the primary level normally cannot work together effectively in groups consisting of more than eight. With older children, the groupings may be larger. The nature of the activities in which the children are to engage, however, tends to determine the number of groups as well as the size of each group in which effective work may take place.

10. Strive to have each group and subgroup move forward with certainty and orderliness after they have decided upon the common goals to be attained and the activities to be undertaken. Visit each subgroup frequently to determine whether or not it is functioning well. If any of them are encountering major difficulties, make immediate suggestions that will improve the work. When a group arrives at the point where evaluation seems desirable, assist the members in discovering ways in which they can work together more effectively, and, if necessary, in reformulating their general plans.

11. Listen to the children's conversations to discover whether the words and expressions used are meaningful to the group as well as to each child as he expresses himself. Here you will have an excellent opportunity to help children to clarify words and ideas and to develop logical thinking.

12. Assist the children in selecting problems that are of real concern to the group. Children need to identify themselves posi-

tively with a problem of common concern before effective group processes can take place.

13. Group the children according to their interests, needs, maturity, and age. Younger children will need much guidance from you in selecting the group in which they should work, whereas older children may be given more freedom to choose their group once the goals have been established.

14. Encourage children, starting with the primary level, to participate in formulating rules and regulations for their behavior in group work. By this means, they will become skilled in recognizing the need for such matters as order and the wise use of time. Also, by having pupils establish their own standards of conduct, you will have more time to work with the various groups as they complete their individual or group assignments.

15. Keep a relatively complete record of the group's original plans and note any changes that are made as the group continues to work together. Through this technique you will be able to plan more effectively with the group and to evaluate its progress.

16. By planning thoroughly yourself, make it possible for the children to plan effectively together. Try to anticipate contingencies so that the group's progress will not be interrupted through your lack of foresight. In the final analysis, you are responsible for seeing that appropriate materials and supplies are available to the children, though such duties may have been delegated to committees. In turn, the children need to recognize that they must listen carefully, follow directions, and assume responsibilities delegated to them by you and by other members of the group if effective group work is to be accomplished.

17. Seek to promote in each child the maximum amount of thinking, growth, and skill for participating effectively in group processes. Your responsibility as a student teacher is to liberate the intelligence of children so that they will become increasingly skilled in solving their personal and social problems in a democratic society.

A CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT FOR GROUP WORK

You, as the teacher, are the most important single element in the classroom environment. The children will be influenced greatly by the kind of person you are, the things you do, what

you say and the way you say it, and the attitudes you express either directly or indirectly. Therefore you will want to study continuously how you as a person are affecting the learning situation.

You can contribute much to the classroom climate by helping each child feel at ease. At no time let the children sense that you are tense or full of anxiety. Instead, appear relaxed, happy, and genuinely interested in each child; convince the children that you believe firmly in what you are doing. In this manner you will greatly aid in creating an atmosphere in which each child finds it a pleasure to work.

A well-organized and an attractively arranged classroom is an essential element in effective group processes. The responsibility of creating this type of classroom should be shared jointly by you, the supervising teacher, and the pupils. The fact that your room is an old-fashioned one in an old building need not prevent you from building a good classroom environment. With the use of plenty of imagination and ingenuity, you, the supervising teacher, and the pupils can create an attractive and livable room that is conducive to effective work and play. Although good group work requires ample space and movable classroom furniture, do not be discouraged if the desks and seats are permanently screwed to the floor. Try dividing the room up for group activity—a section for children in one corner, another in the middle of the room, and so forth. With the help of pupils, boards can be laid securely over the desks to make satisfactory tables and benches.

As a student teacher, you may wish to suggest tactfully that permission be obtained from the administration to unscrew the desks and to mount them on long boards that can be moved about. Ingenious arrangements of desks may free as much as one-third of the floor area for work space. If the furniture cannot be moved about, corners of the room may be utilized to great advantage, especially for group projects requiring considerable space. Corners of the room may also be used as centers for read-

ing, science, or art, for bulletin boards, or as a workshop or place for exhibiting various kinds of material. The front of the classroom usually provides an excellent place for groups to assemble. Small chairs suitable to primary children usually can be secured through some means for this purpose.

Use the natural and artificial light in your room to the best advantage. Make sure all groups have plenty of light and that glare does not handicap the children's efforts. Check carefully on heat and ventilation. If you find that the group is distracted by outside noise, discuss the problem with your supervising teacher and the children and attempt to schedule group discussions and committee reports at times when there is a minimum of disturbance.

Good group environment also means a minimum of confusion and delay in distributing materials, supplies, and reference books, in returning such materials to their proper places, and in straightening up the room after a busy period. Committees organized to handle these details are essential parts of good group work.

Classrooms for children in the elementary grades, especially at the primary level, should be attractively arranged. Children are affected greatly by the atmosphere of the room in which they work. They take real pride in seeing the fruits of their efforts displayed. Furthermore, parents and others visiting the room are usually favorably impressed by displays of books, pictures, murals, charts, and models of objects completed. Such displays help convince parents that their children are experiencing constructive learning.

Group activity itself creates some noise in a room. This is to be expected. So long as the work of the group is purposeful, and each member of the group is intently occupied, the noise that necessarily results is to be considered desirable in effective group learning.

The classroom environment is not always bounded by the four walls of the room. The resources of nature, community, and

home can contribute greatly to classroom work. You will therefore want to utilize these resources in fostering effective group processes.

Keep in mind the background differences in the experience, abilities, and interests of the children. These differences can provide rich sources of stimulation, insight, and understanding. You will therefore want to study each child carefully. The understandings you gain from this study should be of much value to you in assisting the children to select meaningful group activities. Classroom atmosphere is conducive to effective learning when the children are engaged in activities of real concern to them.

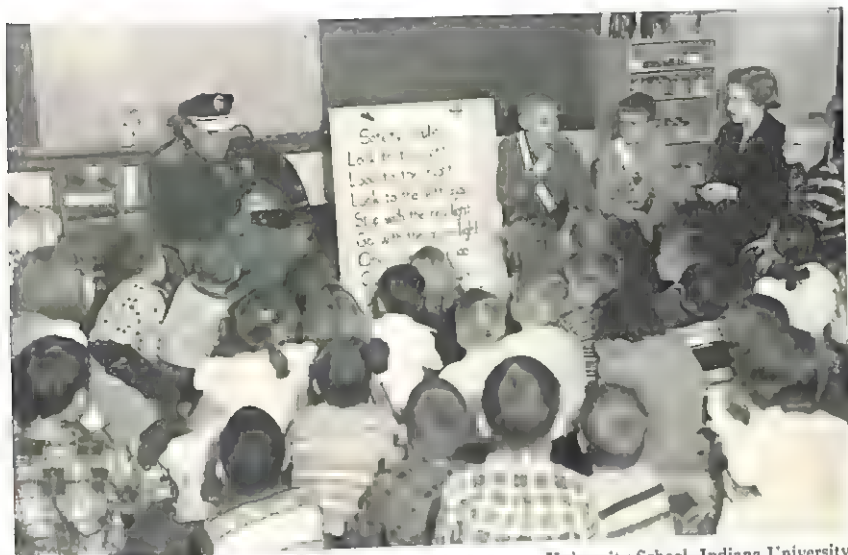
Be on the alert to see that the group does not select or set impossible goals, and do not be discouraged or disappointed if their efforts do not fully meet your expectations. Since the children in the primary grades are especially limited in their experience backgrounds, it is extremely important that you help them to select goals that they can achieve.

INFORMAL GROUP SHARING

The first type of group processes in which primary children usually engage is informal group sharing. There is no definite period, however, in the growth of children when group sharing should cease. Even though other types of group activity are used at later stages in a child's development, sharing can be greatly beneficial to children at any level or grade.

Group sharing is precisely what the name implies—sharing with all other children and with the teacher ideas, interests, objects, original or creative work, and perplexities concerning environment, self, and family. To stimulate a feeling of fellowship and of common interest, informal group sharing should be conducted with all members in the group facing each other in a semicircle. You may need to assemble the children in the front of the room for such a seating arrangement. The sharing period usually is held at a definite time during the day, either in the

morning or immediately after lunch. However, especially with primary children, you should use your judgment in allowing informal sharing to take place at other times during the day so that spontaneous enthusiasm and significant contributions to the group will not be lost.



University School, Indiana University

Resource persons from the community can make contributions to group work.

Sharing activities in an informal manner gives children an excellent opportunity to develop skill in oral communication. A feeling of respect for others through the contributions they make may also be developed. Each child gives something of interest to the group and in return receives attention and often admiration—two vitally important elements in developing feelings of belonging and security in each child.

In informal group sharing, urge each child to express himself freely to the entire class on the object or experience he is sharing. For example, a child on his way to school may find a bird's nest that has fallen from a tree, a peculiar rock or flower, or a toad, turtle, or frog. The experience may be quite thrilling to

a primary child. When he brings his discovery to school, encourage him to tell the group all the details about it. Because of their natural exuberance, the children in the group will normally share in his experience.

When a child appears before the group to share his experience, seek to develop listening skills among the other children. As they become increasingly interested in what is being shared, they will naturally ask questions. At this point, the speaker becomes a listener. During the question period, encourage the children to take turns in asking questions by pointing out the confusion that would result if they all talked at the same time.

You may find it desirable to hold an informal sharing period at any time during the school day. During the study of nutrition, for example, a child may want to relate what he saw the night before on his television set in a program concerning health. Another child may want to tell of the food served to him while he was a patient in the hospital, and how it was planned by a dietitian. Another child may want to describe an exhibit he saw in which the effects of malnutrition were vividly displayed. Other children may want to show pictures that they have received from various food companies in order to illustrate the effects of diet upon the body. The areas of social studies and science, in the upper elementary grades especially, provide many sharing opportunities, particularly when boys and girls spend their vacations in many different parts of the United States and bring home with them souvenirs of all kinds.

You may find that some children feel they have nothing to share with others. By making suggestions and asking questions, you may be able to help each child realize that there are things in his life that he can share with others. For example, a young child may realize that experiences encountered on a shopping trip with mother, a trip to the city or to the farm, or the things he saw at a circus or carnival may be of interest to others.

Some children may want to tell of incidents in the neighborhood or in their homes, such as a fire or an accident. Others may want to tell about the birthday gift or the new outfit of clothes

they received. Many children like to bring objects to the classroom, especially toys, games, books, pets, puzzles, and musical instruments. Bringing these possessions to the classroom creates a natural setting for informal group sharing.

In order to insure maximum listening, you may wish to suggest that an object be passed among the various members of the group only after the speaker has finished his talk. If it is a valuable article, such as a fragile heirloom, the owner may not want it to be handled at all. In such cases it may prove satisfactory for you to show it to members of the group yourself or to place it on a table where it may be observed.

The technique of informal group sharing for children in the upper elementary grades is the same as in the lower grades. Naturally, the experiences that are related and the subjects discussed are of a higher maturity level. Hobbies, collections, examples of creative work, and displays of various talents can be used by upper elementary groups to create many interest-sustaining experiences.

• GROUP DISCUSSION

Group discussion is one of the most frequently used types of group process. In fact, it may be considered basic to such other forms as planning, problem-solving, and evaluation. Through effective group discussions children learn to direct their thinking toward common problems, to express their ideas clearly and critically, to consider and respect the ideas, opinions, and data shared by others, to assume responsibilities delegated to them by the group, and to experience the dynamics that emerge when minds play upon minds in the solution of common problems.

Group discussion is a normal outgrowth of group sharing and should be used as soon as the group has gained skill in group sharing. It may start in a rudimentary form as early as the kindergarten level.

Discussion differs considerably from group sharing. In sharing, one person normally talks or demonstrates, while in discus-

sion all pupils participate both as talkers and as listeners. Discussion is a concentrated effort by the entire group to pool ideas, opinions, and suggestions in an attempt to arrive at a common understanding of the problems or issues before it. Discussion also helps to mold a number of individuals into one working unit.



Fort Wayne, Indiana

Small groups can work effectively on many problems.

You will find group discussions valuable in furthering your understanding of individual children within the group. Through group discussions you will gain increased understanding of a child's attitudes, opinions, values, abilities, interests, ambitions, potentialities, and needs. As a result, you will be in a much better position to guide the growth of each child in the direction of effective democratic living.

Effective group discussion is not to be confused with the question-and-answer type of situation found in so many schools. Here communication is limited primarily to questions asked by the teacher and answered by one or more children. The children have little or no opportunity to interact with other children on

problems of concern to them. A premium is placed upon parroting answers that the child thinks the teacher wants, and upon compliance in an autocratic situation. Critical thinking, ease in communication, initiative, creativeness, and self and group disciplines do not flourish in such an environment.

Kinds of Group Discussions. Of the various kinds of group discussion found in everyday life, the following are probably the most common: the informal group discussion, panel discussion, the forum lecture, the forum dialogue, and the symposium.² Of necessity, the informal group discussion is most frequently used in the elementary school. The others are more formal and require more maturity on the part of the participants. This does not mean, however, that these forms can never be used, especially by the upper elementary children. But they do require more planning and guidance from the teacher.

You will want to be familiar with the nature, advantages, and limitations of each kind. For this reason a brief discussion of each follows:

1. *The Informal Group Discussion.* In this kind of discussion a group usually gathers around a table or sits in a circle to discuss a common interest, topic, or problem. The need for the discussion may have been suggested by the children, the teacher, or both. The leader or chairman of the group, whether teacher or pupil, makes certain that all members of the group understand the topic or problem to be discussed. He attempts to guide the discussion so that maximum participation will occur, differing points of view will be voiced and examined, thinking will be concentrated on the topic being considered, and conclusions will be reached.

Informal group discussion provides abundant opportunities for each child to participate. A premium is placed upon individual thinking and upon sharing of information, ideas, and opinions. Each child assumes a responsibility for helping the group to move forward in its thinking. Much flexibility with respect to time and topics to be discussed is provided.

² *Understanding Through Discussion*, p. 16. Lansing, Michigan: Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Bulletin No. 339, 1945.

The topics for informal group discussions in the elementary school will range from the exceedingly self-centered interest of a kindergarten child to rather complex problems encountered by the upper elementary children. Early discussions may center about such subjects as plans for the day's work, agreements on rules of conduct for play and work, selection of children to serve as room helpers and the responsibilities to be assumed by them, and activities in which the group should participate. Other group discussion topics that frequently emerge are: conduct in the halls, playground, and classroom; safety regulations; ways of keeping the classroom and school building clean; and responsibilities to be assumed in games.

You as a student teacher will need to assume major responsibility for guiding the discussion of children in the early elementary school. As the skill and maturity of the group increase, your active role in directing the discussion will decrease.

Early experiences of primary children in group discussion need not result in the solution of a problem, nor need the children always have clearly perceived goals or projects. For example, a fruitful informal discussion might take place about the weather. Such sessions help children to gain skill in the art of discussion and tend to develop critical and creative thinking. They help children to clarify their interests and needs and to formulate problems or projects for further study.

Before the discussion ends, you as a student teacher should make sure that the children have gained meanings from it, perhaps by helping them to summarize what they have discussed.

Since differences of opinion are to be expected in group discussion, you may need to help children respect as well as resolve the differences that emerge. Discussion is not an argument, nor is it a debate.

Informal group discussion, especially with older children, normally leads to the recognition of problems, the planning of courses of action, the formulation of committees, the designation of recorders, and the delegation of responsibilities and assignments to each group in order to solve the problem.

2. *Panel Discussion.* In the panel discussion, a chairman and usually not more than six pupils sit in a semicircle. The chairman first presents the topic for discussion, guides the panel members so

that they do not stray from the topic, and attempts to gain balance in the panel participation. He invites questions from the audience and directs them to the members of the panel who he feels should answer. At the close of the discussion, the chairman makes a final summary of the significant points stressed and the conclusions reached.

This type of discussion gives the panel members, especially, opportunities to assume leadership roles. Children of the fifth, sixth, and seventh grades can utilize the panel discussion with considerable effectiveness. For example, members of the safety patrol can serve as panel members. They can discuss safety in the streets, hall traffic, playground regulations, and so on. Another example might be a panel consisting of pupils who are taking lessons on musical instruments. They could discuss the cost of lessons, type of instruction, nature of instruction, the need for practice, the function of the instrument with respect to other instruments, and the like.

3. *Forum Lecture.* In the forum lecture, the talents of an individual child can be tapped for the benefit of all. The chairman is often the teacher. One child prepares and makes a presentation while the rest of the group listens. After he has finished, the teacher asks the group for questions to be directed to the speaker, or allows a member of the audience to challenge a statement offered by the speaker.

Because of the preparation and organization required, the forum lecture is used most frequently in the upper grades. Experience gained in the primary grades during informal group sharing provides an excellent background for this type of discussion.

A pupil who has participated as a contestant in a radio or television amateur contest can prepare and deliver an account of each step of his experience from the time he first made application to join the contest up to the big night of the performance. He can end by telling how the contest was judged, who the winners were, and what prizes they received. Other examples would be presenting hobbies, such as stamp or butterfly collections, or telling about experiences encountered during an unusual trip. The forum lecture also provides for the effective use in the classroom of community members who are experts in various kinds of work or areas of understanding.

4. *Forum Dialogue.* In the forum dialogue only two pupils participate actively. They appear before the group and ask each other questions on debatable subjects. The audience merely listens throughout. Since considerable rehearsal and planning are necessary if it is to be effective, this type of discussion is best adapted to the upper grades.

5. *Symposium.* A symposium consists of three or more children who systematically discuss a specific topic before a group of pupils. Each member is responsible for briefly discussing a specific aspect of the topic that has been decided upon beforehand. The chairman introduces each member according to a prearranged plan. After each speaker has discussed his part of the topic, pupils in the group may raise questions or challenge members of the symposium. Near the close of the period, the chairman summarizes the pertinent points of the discussion and the conclusions reached.

The symposium provides an opportunity for a number of pupils to assume a leadership role in a rather formalized manner. A wide variety of topics can be discussed in a systematic manner. Little provision, however, is made for members of the symposium to interact with one another, except in planning for the symposium discussion. Also, the other pupils assume little more than the role of listeners. Because of its specialized and formalized nature, the symposium is used more effectively in the upper levels of the elementary school.

In planning group discussion experiences with your pupils, you will want to keep in mind the purposes and outcomes for which they are intended. Actually, the purposes and outcomes desired determine the specific type or nature of the experience. They also determine such matters as the leadership role provided by the teacher, the physical facilities needed, the preplanning required, the resource material needed, the selection of participants, and the assignment of major responsibilities.

Factors Affecting Group Discussion. There are some conditions common to all discussion groups that tend to facilitate the process. As mentioned previously, an informal, democratic atmosphere is conducive to thinking and discussion. In so far as possible, pupils should be seated comfortably and in a face-to-

face arrangement. The situation should be as free as possible from noises and actions that tend to distract the thinking of the children. A pleasant, warm, and permissive relationship should exist between the teacher and the pupils. The children should understand clearly not only what is to be discussed but also the purposes of the discussion. If a pupil is to serve as a discussion leader, a recorder, or a group observer, he should have a clear concept of his duties in fulfilling the responsibilities delegated to him by the group. The group may need to help him formulate his duties.

The children should be encouraged to express their own ideas and opinions clearly and to the point. Speech-making, arguments, and excessive participation on the part of any one pupil should be discouraged. The children should be attentive, courteous, and respectful toward one another. Criticisms and disagreements should be offered in a friendly, constructive manner. Differences of opinion should be respected and thoroughly examined. Neglected points of view should be pointed out. Emphasis should be placed upon "what seems to be right" rather than upon "who is right." Questions should be raised by you or by the children to clarify meanings, to test the adequacy of data, opinions, and conclusions, or to keep the discussion moving and pointed. Each contribution should tend to move the thinking of the group forward.

As a student teacher, you occupy a most strategic and important position in guiding group discussion. Fundamentally, you should be concerned with promoting in each child the maximum amount of thinking, growth, and skill for participating effectively in group discussions. You are basically responsible for developing the environmental conditions in which effective group discussion flourishes. You will need to help each child participate to his maximum capacity and to help the group in interpreting and respecting each child's contribution. Do not hesitate to give praise for honest effort and genuine contributions. Some children will need much encouragement, whereas others will need your help in avoiding excessive domination of

the group's discussion. Occasionally you will need to inject some humor into the discussion in order to relieve tensions that arise, to maintain a high level of morale and group unity. Do not hesitate to laugh with your group. Laughter tends to improve interaction.

Do not be alarmed over brief periods of silence. A constant flow of words does not necessarily mean that a great amount of thinking is taking place. Discussion, unlike casual conversation, is pointed, and children may need moments of silence in which to germinate ideas. On the other hand, you will want to be sensitive to dwindling interest that results from fatigue. Young children cannot direct their thinking to a problem or topic for as long a time as older children can. Keep constantly in mind the maturity level of the group as well as the level of each child within the group.

GROUP PLANNING

Group planning is essential in translating group thinking and discussion into action. It consists of the group's efforts to arrive at desired goals. It emerges as pupils define a group problem and consider ways and means of solving it. It occurs and re-occurs as pupils delegate responsibilities, consider materials needed, experiment, discover new meanings, encounter difficulties, and evaluate their progress. Basically, it is a continuous and integral part of problem-solving.

In order for group planning to be effective, every pupil in the group should participate in it. Each pupil should be encouraged to make every contribution possible, with the feeling that each suggestion he offers will be respected and considered by the group. Emphasis at first should be placed upon pooling contributions rather than upon selecting a course of action. Time must be provided for building up group thinking out of which creative suggestions may flow. The quality of group planning suffers greatly when a group springs into action too quickly. Intelligent action is directly related to the quantity and quality of the thinking out of which the action emerges.

It is normal and natural to expect differences of opinion and conflicting points of view as children plan together. Time must be provided so that these differences can be examined and, if possible, reconciled. It is important that consensus be gained if at all possible in planning for group action. In any case, children should assume that plans are always tentative, that they are always subject to review, and that they can be changed as new findings, insights, and understandings require.

Replanning becomes important as a group begins to carry its initial plans into action, as unforeseen difficulties are encountered, as new insights and understandings are gained, and as goals take on new meanings. From time to time the entire group meets for pooling thoughts and products, for rethinking, for evaluating progress, and for reworking group plans.

To be real and effective, group planning must emerge from the needs and interests of the pupils in the group. You as a student teacher will want the plans to be *their* plans and to be as *they* see them. Effective democratic planning cannot take place when teachers, either consciously or unconsciously, attempt to hoodwink children into accepting cut-and-dried, adult plans. On the other hand, there are many things that you can do without danger of regimenting the group. For instance, you will be able to assist your group greatly in such matters as establishing standards for group planning; creating and maintaining a feeling of freedom for each child to contribute; reconciling differences of opinion and points of view; bringing to their attention other problems or other aspects of the same problem; organizing their thinking and procedures; assigning individual and small-group responsibilities; recognizing the need for additional information and investigation; devising ways of securing needed information and materials; and accurately recording discussions, decisions, and plans for action.

As plans are developed by the group, they should be recorded on the chalkboard so that at any time the children (1) have a visible record of the plans that already have been made, and (2) use them as a basis for completing the plans of the group.

The names of the children who are to assume specific responsibilities should be recorded as integral parts of the written plans, so that each child understands clearly "who is to do what." If the activities planned by the group are to continue over several days, you may wish to transfer the plans from the chalkboard to a



Group action grows out of effective planning and leads to group evaluation.
Hammond, Indiana

large chart or to hectographic paper so that the chalkboard may be used for other purposes. Many children like to take hectographic copies of their plans home and share them with their parents. Such a procedure constitutes one type of reporting to parents and often stimulates considerable interest among parents in the activities of the school. You will need to serve as the recorder for young children. This responsibility may be assumed by a child in older groups of boys and girls. Children from the

third grade on may want to transfer their plans from the chalkboard to notebooks or to sheets of paper that can be filed in individual folders.

Encourage the children to refer frequently to the plans made by the group in order to: (1) further clarify individual and subgroup responsibilities, (2) evaluate the progress that is being made, and (3) determine whether or not a need for replanning exists. Occasionally, you may wish to have the entire group examine its plans together in order to evaluate the progress it has made and to replan when necessary.

In guiding group planning, Michaelis³ suggests that the following principles be kept in mind:

1. All should share in planning so that the best ideas of each member of the group are brought to bear upon the problem.

2. Problems and needs expressed by the children should receive major attention. Neglected problems can be called to the attention of the group by the teacher.

3. The teacher should create a feeling of freedom and responsiveness by showing utmost respect for each child and his contributions.

4. Constructive suggestions should be secured from the group; negative comments should be redirected into positive suggestions.

5. Techniques of clear thinking are essential; examples are getting the problem clearly in mind, hearing all suggestions, accepting best suggestions, forming tentative conclusions, determining needs for additional information and sources of information, and basing plans of action upon sound conclusions.

6. The teacher, or leader, should participate, without dominating, as encouragement is needed, impasses are reached, or too difficult problems arise.

7. Standards for planning should be developed and used as needs arise.

8. Records should be made and kept as needed to further group action; examples are charts, directions, reading guides, work sheets, notes, and minutes.

³ John U. Michaelis, *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*, pp. 190-191. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950.

9. Group decisions growing out of planning should lead to specific plans for action.

10. Group planning is effective when each child understands what he is to do, knows where he is to do it, knows what materials he is to use, knows how to proceed with his work, understands group-made standards, knows where to get help if problems arise, and knows with whom he is to work.

GROUP WORK

The group work of children generally follows the accepted steps in problem-solving. You have undoubtedly seen these steps phrased in various ways. Essentially, they include: recognizing and clarifying the problem, exploring possible solutions to the problem, selecting a course of action or plan of attack, securing pertinent data, testing the possible solution, and drawing conclusions. The effective solution of any group problem follows this general pattern, regardless of the age of the participants. You will therefore want to develop skill during your student teaching in helping children to apply these steps as they seek the solution to problems of common concern to them.

Your attention thus far has been directed primarily to the initial phases of group problem-solving. You have noted how group discussion and group planning are used in recognizing and clarifying a problem of common concern, in exploring probable solutions to the problem, in deciding upon the most promising course or courses of action to be taken by the group, and in planning how to pursue that course of action. You now are concerned with helping the pupils carry out their group plans.

The success of your group as it moves into action will depend largely upon the quality of its planning. It is imperative that each child have a clear concept not only of the course of action agreed upon, but also of the responsibilities he is to assume, the reasons why he is to assume them, and how he is to fulfill them. Some of these responsibilities will be of a highly individual nature; others will involve working in small groups; and still

others will be related to the work of the entire group. If possible, both individual and small-group responsibilities should be assigned on the basis of each child's interests, abilities, and needs. In order to be of maximum help to each child and to the total group, you as the teacher may need to suggest that certain responsibilities be delegated to specific children. For example,



Fort Wayne, Indiana

Cooperation is essential in group work.

John may be very interested and skilled in art but badly in need of certain mathematical skills. Obviously, it would be unwise for John always to be delegated responsibilities that require only artistic skills. The wise teacher knows his pupils well enough to provide effective individual guidance in group situations. Obviously you will need to exercise much more guidance with primary children than with older children.

An important phase of group planning includes the deter-

mination of the number as well as the size of small groups that will be needed to achieve the goals of the group. The number of committees to be formed will depend upon the nature of the problem, the work space available, and the equipment and material needed. During such experiences as sharing reports, taking excursions, and using audio-visual materials, all members of the group will normally work together. Small groups assume such responsibilities as making murals, writing scripts for plays, writing letters, making wall maps, and collecting and organizing various types of information needed by the group.

As soon as the pupils (especially older children) have been assigned to small groups or committees, they will need to meet together for planning purposes. Each committee will normally find it desirable to assign certain responsibilities, such as chairman and recorder, in order to facilitate its work. The nature of the committee's work will determine whether other assignments are desirable.

You will probably need to help each committee to make these assignments intelligently. Often children make their selections on the basis of such superficial qualifications as popularity or sheer willingness to accept the assignment. It may be desirable to have members of the committee develop a set of standards, as will be discussed later, to be used in selecting children for specific committee responsibilities. Whether or not the committee's work will be effective depends largely on how intelligently responsibilities are delegated.

Your guidance may also be needed in helping each committee to clarify its responsibilities to the total group; to develop plans for carrying out its work; to devise ways of working together effectively; to divide the work among the members; to consider the resources needed and ways of securing them; to devise efficient means of communicating and sharing ideas and materials; to provide for replanning when difficulties arise; to record progress; and to report the products of its work to the group. You will need to be especially alert during the early stages of com-

mittee organization to insure that each committee begins its work effectively.

You will want to develop a physical environment that is conducive to effective group work. Actually, group planning includes consideration of the physical requirements in the solution of the problem. Flexible furniture arrangements, such as chairs and tables that may be moved about, greatly increase the effectiveness of group work. And useful materials such as chalkboards facilitate the recording of group thinking and planning. Materials such as books, paints, clay, crayons, pictures, maps, paper, pencils, scissors, and other items needed should be centrally located and easily accessible to the children. By this means much time is saved by the pupils; intercommunication of ideas and materials between committees is facilitated; assistance provided by the teacher to the pupils is increased; and an attitude of "we" and "ours" is encouraged.

Some children, especially older ones, may want to make various trips to secure the information or materials they need. They may decide to make trips to the public library, grocery store, courthouse, or train station. They may need to consult specialists in the community. They may need to secure or construct special equipment. Such activities require freedom to move about outside the classroom. Obviously, some of these activities will entail considerable time on the part of the children and may require your supervision. It may be necessary for you to secure permission from the school officials, and frequently from parents, when it seems desirable for individuals or small groups of children to depart from the regular classroom schedule.

GROUP EVALUATION

Many opportunities exist for you to evaluate the behavior of children as they carry their group plans into action. You assume the role of both evaluator and helper as you work with the pupils. You will want to be concerned with how well each child:

1. Accepts responsibilities delegated to him.
2. Exercises initiative in achieving group goals.
3. Lives up to standards developed by the group.
4. Evidences courteous ways of working with others.
5. Organizes data and other materials effectively.
6. Regulates actions in terms of group goals.
7. Uses reference materials such as books, dictionaries, and encyclopedias.
8. Critically analyzes and draws logical conclusions from data.
9. Takes criticisms and suggestions unemotionally.
10. Desires to see the group succeed.
11. Presents information to others in a clear, logical, and effective manner.
12. Helps others whenever possible.
13. Shows increasing command of fundamental skills and understandings in the various areas of learning.
14. Respects the rights as well as the contributions of others.
15. Recognizes that plans are tentative and may need to be changed by the group.

In order to facilitate the evaluation of a child's work in the group, you may wish to construct a rating sheet similar to the one below. By providing a convenient means of recording a child's performance from time to time such a sheet enables you to determine his progress. Children may construct similar rating sheets and use them for analyzing their own behavior in a group.

You also have an excellent opportunity to evaluate the work of the group, especially when each committee finally shares the results of its efforts with other members of the total group. At this time you should be able to appraise such matters as the extent to which:

1. Group goals were achieved.
2. Understandings and skills were acquired.
3. Committees effectively fulfilled their responsibilities.
4. Group-consciousness was maintained.
5. Human relationships were improved.
6. Needs of the children were met.
7. Problem-solving skills were gained.

Name _____	Date _____		
Group _____			
Activity _____			
Capacity _____			
GROUP WORK DEVELOPMENT			
Behavior Characteristic	Good	Satisfactory	Needs Improvement
Is a Willing Worker			
Gets Along With Others			
Ability to Complete Task			
Helps Others			
Initiative			
Creativeness			
Ability to Analyze Critically			
Accepts Help and Suggestions from Others			
Self-Control			
Knows How To Get Information and Use Resources			

Immediately following the final reporting, you will want your group to evaluate its accomplishments. By this means the members of the group will gain insights into what they have accomplished, how well they have worked together, how they might have accomplished more, how materials might have been used

more effectively, and what needs to be done in the future. The group itself may want to use a rating sheet to evaluate its work. Your evaluation of pupils' work, as well as the help you give them in evaluating their own efforts, should be directed toward helping them become increasingly effective in solving individual and group problems democratically.

MAKING GROUP STANDARDS

When children first enter school, they are introduced to or made aware of certain standards that govern their behavior. There are fire-drill regulations that must be learned and followed. There are certain rules of behavior to which they are expected to conform in the halls, washroom, cafeteria, and playground. It is important for children to understand as clearly as possible the reasons for as well as the values in having these regulations.

As children begin to work and play together, the need for establishing a number of standards of conduct quickly arises. Wraps need proper care. Materials and equipment need to be used and stored properly. Certain care must be taken of the classroom. Safety rules need to be observed. The rights of others need to be respected. A child needs to get along happily with others. Responsibilities need to be assumed. These and many other needs necessitate the establishment of group standards.

Children need to participate in formulating the standards that are to govern their conduct if the standards are to be meaningful and functional to them. Establishing group standards, therefore, constitutes an integral part of any group process. It is by means of these self-imposed standards that a child is able to evaluate his own and the group's performance effectively, and to discover ways in which his behavior and learnings may be improved.

The group standards developed vary, of course, according to the maturity level of the children. For example, first-grade children may formulate the following standards for group discus-

sion: (1) take turns, (2) help make plans, and (3) listen to others. Children in the fourth grade may develop the following group-discussion standards: (1) help state the problem, (2) give your ideas, (3) consider other ideas, (4) listen carefully, (5) help to make a plan. Children in the sixth grade may state their standards in the following manner: (1) state problem clearly, (2) stick to the point, (3) respect ideas of others, (4) make a contribution, (5) weigh the evidence, (6) raise questions on issues, (7) help in making decisions, and (8) help in summarizing.⁴ Similar differences will exist in the standards developed by children for group work.

As mentioned previously, children often need help in choosing leaders or chairmen for their groups. With your help a group of older children may select chairmen in terms of the following abilities:

Pointers for a Group Leader To Remember

1. Makes each person feel important so that he wants to contribute to the group discussion.
2. Gets to the problem and stays on it until some action is made.
3. Calls on each person in a tactful way.
4. Helps the recorder make a record of the important things.
5. Raises important questions for the group to consider.
6. Sees that everyone gets a chance to participate.
7. Is courteous and understanding.
8. Expresses himself well.
9. Summarizes the discussion.

Standards developed by a group should be recorded on charts that are displayed in conspicuous places in the classroom. You will need to do the printing for younger children, whereas older children may delegate this responsibility to one or more of their group. The children should be frequently encouraged to refer to these standards as they pursue their work. The standards should be revised when children feel the need for revision.

You will need to encourage the children to apply the stand-

⁴ Michaelis, *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*, p. 186.

ards they have developed. You may wish to commend those children who are carrying out the standards and are helping others to do likewise. You may find it necessary to ask a child to stop an activity for a few minutes in order to consider his conduct in terms of the group standards. On rare occasions you may need to exclude a child from a group until he has had time to reflect adequately upon his responsibilities to the group. Through skillful guidance on your part, the group itself may be very effective in helping a child to modify his behavior to conform with the standards developed by the group.

Standards developed by the children themselves have a great influence on their behavior in all phases of school activities. Successful field trips, for example, depend largely on the development of standards by the children to control their conduct outside the classroom. Actually, in this whole process of setting up standards you will help children to become increasingly intelligent about what they should do as well as what they should not do in solving their personal and social problems. Self-imposed codes are the essence of self-direction, which is basic to effective democratic living.

GROUP EXPRESSION

One of your major responsibilities as a student teacher is to help individuals and groups become increasingly effective in communicating their ideas, opinions, desires, and information to others. In the preceding discussion of group processes, attention was directed primarily to oral communication, with some reference to the importance of keeping written records of a group's activities.

You will need to help groups explore and utilize as many ways as possible of expressing themselves effectively. For your consideration, here are some media frequently used in elementary schools to encourage group expression:

1. *Writing Letters.* An example is given to illustrate the use of this type of group expression. The Mother's Club in an elementary

school gave each teacher a sum of money to purchase anything that was needed to improve each of the classrooms. Planning with the teacher, the boys and girls decided what they needed for their respective rooms. They also decided that each class would write its own letter of appreciation to the Mother's Club.

The children in the primary grades first discussed what such a letter should contain and what it should be like. They developed standards for a good letter, which were then written on the board in very simple terms by the teacher. The teacher then helped the children formulate their ideas into sentences and recorded them on the chalkboard so that they could all see and study what was being written. After the letter had been composed to the satisfaction of all the children, the letter was transferred from the chalkboard to a piece of paper. Each child printed his name on the letter, and it was sent to the president of the Mother's Club.

The children in one of the upper grades formulated the following standards to use as a guide in writing their letters to the Mother's Club: (1) arrangement, (2) parts of a letter, such as the heading, greeting, message, closing, and signature, (3) neatness, (4) correct spelling, (5) capitalization, (6) punctuation, and (7) friendliness and politeness. In the discussion period that followed, the children agreed on what should be included in the letter, and an outline was made on the board. One child was sent to the chalkboard to do the writing. All the children had an opportunity to contribute in formulating and phrasing the letter. After everyone had agreed on content, sentence structure, and punctuation, the letter was transferred to paper and each member of the class signed his name.

Primary children may desire to write group letters to classmates who are ill, to mothers upon special occasions such as Valentine's Day, to community members who are invited to talk to the class, or to parents who are to be invited to the classroom or will be interested in happenings at the school. Children in the upper grades frequently find occasion to write group letters to manufacturing concerns for information and materials, to community members who contribute as resource people, and to community agencies in connection with field trips.

2. *Creating a Poem.* Children in the elementary school, especially on the primary level, are exceedingly spontaneous, receptive, and sensitive to sounds, colors, and motions. They tend to respond

readily to the rhythm of word sounds. For this reason they frequently wish to express themselves in the form of a poem.

Poems composed by groups of elementary-school children cover a wide variety of subjects, such as nature, transportation vehicles, holidays, musical instruments, and animals. The many simple happenings in life that often pass by adults without being noticed frequently provide the setting for the creation of a poem by children. You as a student teacher should capitalize upon these spontaneous moments and help children to express themselves in verse.

You may find older children in group situations to be less spontaneous and more self-conscious. The approval of the group often means more to boys and girls at this time than the desire to display creative ability. Therefore, you may need to exert more effort in developing an environment in which they feel free to create a poem. It is highly important that you continue to encourage creative abilities in children as they grow up. Older children can be stimulated to create poems with complex pattern structures, rich meanings, and important values.

You will probably want to record each poem on the chalkboard as it is being created. Through your enthusiastic presence before the group, you will be able to do much toward creating an environment in which each child will feel free to contribute, and toward stimulating interaction out of which significant creative contributions may come.

The group's enjoyment of a poem may be heightened by choral reading, in which all the children recite the poem together. Satisfaction derived in this manner often add greatly to the unity of a group, stimulate creative abilities, and contribute to an appreciation of capabilities.

3. *Creating a Song.* Many people feel that music is a universal language through which members of a group gain a feeling of belonging and find ways of expressing their feelings and emotions. Music provides an outlet for children's love for rhythm.

Children are aware of the rhythmic patterns in poems and frequently enjoy creating melodies for them. Many of their own poems, therefore, can be set to music. Such activities tend to unify a group and instill in the children a greater desire to engage in creative work.

The situations that suggest songs to elementary-school children are numerous. For example, during the informal sharing period the

children may be discussing birds, holidays, fictional characters, trains, or airplanes. Any one of these subjects may suggest a song to some of the children. You as the teacher should help the others to "catch" the tune as well as the melody. You may wish to write the words to the song on the chalkboard.

Interest in creating songs usually continues among children in the upper grades. Some of the children may wish to compose the lyrics



Fort Wayne, Indiana

Use instructional materials that help groups achieve specific purposes.

and others the melody. At this level, the children may want to record both the words and the musical notes in order to make a permanent record of their compositions.

4. *Making a Mural.* Children frequently wish to express their group experiences in the form of a mural. The completed mural represents a composite picture of the varied learning and contributions of the members of the group.

Simple murals depicting such subjects as family living, animals, and community scenes may be made by children in the primary grades. Upper-grade children may make more complex murals in which they illustrate such concepts as how people in other countries work and play, how bread is made from wheat, the development of transportation, pioneer and Indian life, and steps in making clothing from cotton or wool.

In creating a mural, planning and discussion must cover theme, subjects, design, balance, color, size, and materials to be used. It is easy for every member of the group to find some contribution to make in constructing the mural. The outcomes of this kind of activity tend to foster in children a respect for one another's abilities and efforts, cooperative attitudes, creative contributions, mastery of skills, understandings, a desire to help others, and a willingness to accept constructive suggestions.

The basic conditions essential for effective group-expression activities are much the same as those prescribed for other types of group processes. The attitude, enthusiasm, and resourcefulness with which you approach group-expression activities will greatly affect the degree of success that you and your children experience. You as a student teacher will have many roles to play. You may need to be enthusiastic one minute and very sympathetic and understanding the next. By all means seek to gain complete confidence from the children so that they will feel free to express their feelings, ideas, and opinions creatively. A pleasant tone of voice, a friendly touch, or a warm smile does wonders in helping children feel secure and creative.

OTHER TYPES OF GROUP ACTIVITY

Other types of activity, such as clubs, student government, student newspapers, and classroom parties, also lend themselves to the effective utilization of group processes. Such activities help children to pursue special interests, to satisfy individual desires, and to develop good conduct in social living. A brief discussion of some of these activities follows:

1. *Clubs.* Children in the primary grades seem to have little or no interest in club activities. In the intermediate grades, however, they become increasingly concerned with peer relationships, and tend to develop a desire for club membership.

Clubs for elementary children may be organized and conducted much like those of older children and even of adults. A club presi-



University School, Indiana University

Do not overlook individual contributions to group enterprises.

dent, vice president, and secretary are usually elected. Sufficient parliamentary procedure can be learned and properly used in these clubs.

Each club must have a purpose that is real and of concern to its members, otherwise interest lags and little is accomplished. The need of forming clubs usually emerges during various group activities. For example: A class in letter-writing may want to form a Pen-Pal Club; or, after the completion of a unit in science, some child may suggest the formation of a Science Club. Since the number of clubs organized in any one class, and the time and frequency of meetings, may depend upon certain established policies of your school system, you will want to discuss such matters with your supervising teacher.

2. *Student Government.* In the elementary grades, student government may operate on a simple yet effective level. If children are to live together effectively in a school building, they must be given opportunities to participate constructively in the establishment of standards to govern their conduct. Furthermore, children must be given an opportunity to voice their needs, opinions, and suggestions if teachers are to be really effective in helping them grow to their maximum capacity for democratic living. Pay particular attention to the role of your supervising teacher in providing guidance to pupils at work on problems of student government.

The student council, the most common form of student government, usually consists of one or more members elected from each of the intermediate-grade rooms. Frequently some form of representation is also provided for the primary rooms. The members function with the guidance of a faculty adviser and report back to their rooms with an account of all matters brought before the council. Many problems, announcements, school affairs, and items of particular interest to children may be presented and given prompt attention in this manner. Members of the council frequently consider and make recommendations on such problems as conduct in the halls, cafeteria, and playground, and various needs of the school. Student councils promote and strengthen school spirit and unity among the members of the student body.

3. *School Newspaper.* Publishing a school newspaper has proved to be a very interesting and profitable group activity in many elementary schools. Although it is of necessity limited in scope and depth, the school newspaper provides opportunities for children to express themselves cooperatively, to evaluate what they have been doing, and to share with the school body and their parents their experiences, plans, and thoughts. Several children may serve as reporters and visit each classroom in the building to gather news items. In some schools each room has its own reporter. Other groups of children help with the editing, layout, typing, duplicating, and distribution. You will need to help each group carry out its responsibilities effectively. In the process, you will have many opportunities to help children as they learn basic skills, recognize and fulfill group responsibilities, contribute creatively, and develop group unity and spirit.

4. *Room Parties.* As a student teacher, you will find many oppor-

tunities for classroom parties. Holidays and birthdays provide excellent occasions for inviting parents and others to visit the children in their school environment.

With primary children, you may need to be responsible for most of the details yourself, even though the pupils do all the discussing and planning. Children in the upper grades, however, can successfully plan and carry through most of the details involved in giving a party. In having a tea for the Mother's Club, for example, committees may be formed to plan the time and date and to secure, prepare, and serve refreshments with little or no help from the teacher. Parties often provide very desirable social situations in which many group learnings take place.

Summary

The elementary school has a responsibility for providing rich, meaningful experiences through which boys and girls can gain increasing skill in the group processes basic to effective living in a democratic society. You as a student teacher are responsible for developing a high degree of skill in providing and guiding these experiences for your pupils.

Attention in this chapter has been directed primarily to guidance principles, environmental conditions, and types of group processes. Consider the discussion as suggestive rather than as prescriptive of the things you may do. Group processes do not lend themselves to cut-and-dried formulas.

The first type of group processes in which primary children usually engage is informal group sharing. Group discussion provides the basis for other forms of group work, such as planning, problem-solving, and evaluation. In planning group-discussion experiences, you will want to keep in mind the purposes and the outcomes for which the experiences are intended. The purposes and outcomes desired actually determine the specific type or nature of the group discussion.

Group planning is essential in translating group thinking and discussion into action. In group action your assistance will be needed in helping the children recognize the problem clearly, delegate individual and committee responsibilities wisely, or-

ganize committees for efficient action, develop a physical environment conducive to work, record and report effectively the products of their efforts to the total group, and evaluate critically and objectively the processes they have used as well as their accomplishments.

Do not be discouraged at the end of your student-teaching experiences if you feel that you have not completely mastered the educative use of group processes in a democratic society. It is a lifetime proposition that challenges teachers as long as they teach.

Thus far, little attention has been given to the needs of exceptional children. Yet in every classroom there are children who differ in some way from typical children to such an extent that they need special instruction or services. Because every person is valued and considered as a unique personality in a democracy, it is imperative that consideration be given to the needs of exceptional children. In no other way can the goal of maximum development of each child be achieved. Hence in the next chapter attention is given to principles and techniques that you may use in working with exceptional children

Suggestions for Further Reading

- Benne, Kenneth D., and Bozidar Muntyan, *Human Relations in Curriculum Change*. New York: The Dryden Press, 1951. Excellent background material on group dynamics; a good summary of research and basic principles involved in human relations.
- Burr, James B., Lowry W. Harding, and Leland B. Jacobs, *Student Teaching in the Elementary School*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950. Chapter X presents practical suggestions; techniques applicable in the elementary school are clearly outlined.
- Burton, W. H., *The Guidance of Learning Activities*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952. Chapter VII discusses the child's family, neighborhood, and social class. Chapter VIII discusses the learner as a group member. Both provide excellent background material.
- Cunningham, Ruth, and Associates, *Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951. A good treatment of group behavior of elementary-

school children; sound principles, techniques, and background material are included.

Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Group Planning in Education*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1945. Principles and techniques of group planning are presented, along with many concrete illustrations; excellent background material for use at all levels of education.

Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1940. A case book of group activities related to the development of democratic citizenship; background material useful in both elementary and secondary schools.

Michaelis, John U., *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950. Chapter VII offers a concrete presentation of techniques and principles to use in the elementary school *grouping*; group planning and evaluation, specific examples, and planning guides are included.

8

Helping Exceptional Children

PROBLEMS of gifted children and of children who are physically, mentally, and emotionally handicapped are being given increased attention in schools throughout the nation. Most states have either permissive or mandatory legislation that provides funds for special teachers, equipment, and services. Efforts are also being made to acquaint classroom teachers with problems of special education and classroom adjustments that they can make for various types of exceptional children who are not in special classes or schools. It is the purpose of this chapter to outline practical suggestions for use by the student teacher in helping exceptional children to realize their fullest capabilities in school.

Who are the exceptional children? They are the children who deviate physically, socially, or mentally from normal to such a degree that they need special instruction or consideration, either temporarily or permanently. They may be classified as children who are visually handicapped, crippled (including cerebral palsied), acoustically handicapped, gifted, mentally retarded, socially or emotionally disturbed, and children who have speech disorders and lowered vitality.

Provisions are made for exceptional children in special schools, special classes, and in regular classes. Extreme deviations require special care, facilities, and teachers. If special teachers are at work in the school, try to observe and consult with them to secure an understanding of the specific challenges involved.

During student teaching, and after you become a full-time teacher, your major problem will be to help identify and deter-

mine the adjustments and procedures that may be used to accommodate exceptional children in the classroom. Your goal should be to develop a program in which each child can work to his fullest ability. You will want to avoid the specialized diagnostic and clinical aspects of special education unless you have had the required training. Many phases of education for exceptional children can be guided only by trained experts. Your immediate task in the classroom is to give the assistance that special teachers recommend and to be alert to classroom adjustments that can be made.

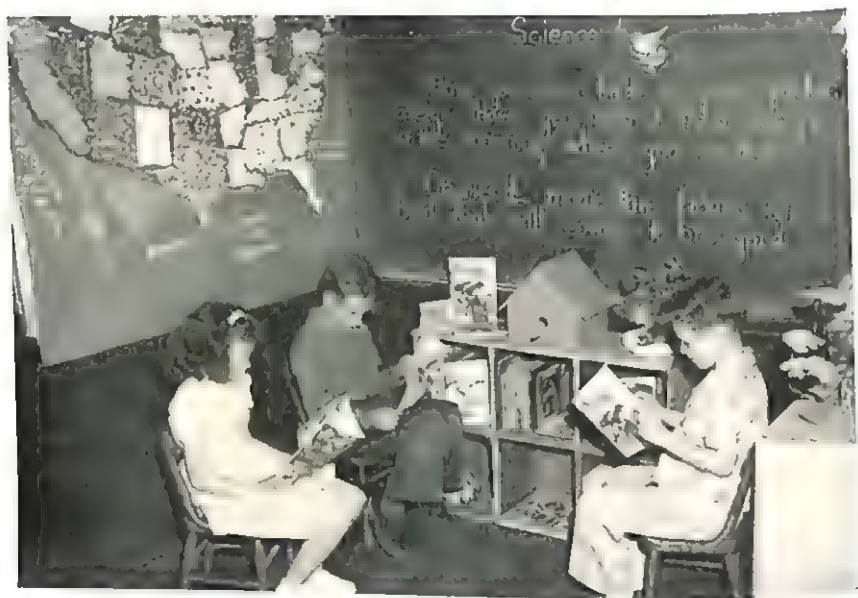
Your point of view is of first importance in approaching the needs of exceptional children. Truly successful teachers believe that each child, regardless of his status or ability, is of real worth and deserves the best education that can be provided. This does not mean identical experiences for all children; it does mean appropriate experiences to meet the individual needs of each child. Feelings of belonging, security, and affection, coupled with real achievement commensurate with ability, are important in the exceptional child's adjustment. Each child must have a place as a contributing and respected member of the group. Each must be esteemed and regarded as a person who deserves all that is implied by fundamental democratic values. Patience, perseverance, understanding, and friendliness are characteristics of teachers who succeed in working with the exceptional child.

Bear in mind that the problem of meeting the needs of any group of children is really a problem of meeting individual differences. The gifted and the mentally retarded differ from typical children in degree of intelligence. The hard-of-hearing differ from normal children in degree of auditory acuity. The crippled usually differ in ability to get around or to use their limbs as adeptly as the unimpaired. What to do to meet such individual differences is a problem of individualizing instruction. Let us now give attention to principles and procedures that are essential in working with all types of exceptional children. These will be followed by specific suggestions regarding individual types.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES

Identify the exceptional children in the class by consulting with your supervising teacher and principal, by checking cumulative records, by checking health records, and by noting exceptional behavior. Confer with your supervising teacher if you believe that certain children need special examinations or attention.

Ascertain what specific suggestions or procedures have been made by special teachers, counselors, or guidance workers and



Richmond, California

Provide materials on varying levels of difficulty so that each child will have an opportunity to engage in worth-while activities.

put them into use in the classroom. Cumulative and health records sometimes contain helpful suggestions regarding things to do for an exceptional child.

Develop units of work that will provide a variety of individual and group activities. Carefully planned units offer opportunities for every child to make contributions on his own and with

others. In addition, use a variety of resources and materials in solving various problems and in meeting individual needs. Opportunities for sharing, participating, and contributing as a working member of the class are excellent for the morale of both exceptional and typical children. Emphasize concern and respect for one another as individual and group activities develop; such attitudes are basic in democratic living.

Groups of children with similar abilities and achievements may be organized within the class to teach reading, arithmetic, and other skills. Groups made up of children with average, high, and low mental ability may work on special projects, such as murals, posters, construction, processing materials, making scenery, sewing, organizing collections, and arranging exhibits. The whole class can work as a group in social activities, games, discussion, singing, field trips, and using audio-visual materials.

Individual projects that may be used include reporting, map-making, reading on a special topic, making scientific equipment, making models, organizing collections, practicing skills, and using the library.

Preventive and developmental programs in reading, social studies, and language skills need emphasis and should not be cast aside for remedial work. Remedial and corrective work should be planned within the framework of a well-rounded program.

Encourage exceptional children by being friendly, understanding, and patient, and by giving praise for jobs well done. Do not give superfluous praise, or praise that has not been earned. Provide work that the children can do and try to secure maximum contributions from them. Real progress and achievement produce feelings of satisfaction and belonging.

After classroom arrangements and procedures have been set up, accept the exceptional children as regular members of the group. Make continuing adjustments in a subtle way that does not embarrass them. Realistic, matter-of-fact acceptance by you will develop feelings of security in the exceptional child and will also promote group acceptance of him.

Do not single the exceptional children out, set them apart

from the group, give them endless praise, urge the group to make many concessions to them, or burden individual pupils with responsibilities for their care. Rather, commend the good work done by each child, and encourage pupils to recognize the individual needs of each member of the class and to help one another in various ways without unduly singling out any individual.

Discover and utilize any special talents that exceptional children have and any special contributions they can make so that they can earn feelings of success. Give them responsibilities in keeping with their capabilities so that they can make significant contributions to group work along with other children in the class.

In the following sections, attention is given to specific categories of exceptional children.

SUPERIOR AND GIFTED CHILDREN

Superior and gifted children in our public schools deserve special educational services if for no other reasons than (1) to furnish educational opportunity commensurate with their mental age and other abilities, and (2) fully to develop their social, economic, aesthetic, and academic potentialities. Superior and gifted children need opportunities to develop their potentialities to the utmost not by mere chance, but by means of well-developed educational programs. The need for individuals of high attainment and special competence is far too great to permit any school to fail to make adequate provisions for them. It is paradoxical to teach conservation of material resources and then to neglect valuable human resources, as sometimes happens in schools today.

Defining the superior and gifted is necessary before we can discuss them realistically. Too often the terms used by one group of observers have different connotations for another group. Some use one term to cover all the gifted; others use several terms.

such as bright, superior, gifted, talented, genius, and super typical.

The *Dictionary of Education* gives the following terms and definitions:

gifted child: a child whose ability, as indicated by an intelligence test, is within the range of the upper 2 or 3% of the population; a child having outstanding ability in a given field, for example, music or art.

talent: capacity and ability in a special field, or natural aptitude capable of high functioning under training, as in visual art or music; does not necessarily imply a high degree of general intelligence.

super typical child: loose synonym for gifted child.

superior child: a child who is considerably above the norm in regard to a number of traits and abilities; usually those children who have outstanding intellectual ability; frequently also implies better than usual social and physical development; a broader term than "gifted child."

Some authorities feel that children who fall within the upper one per cent on intelligence tests administered to a large sample can be considered superior or gifted. One authority states that eight per cent of the population are gifted; another, two per cent; still another, three per cent. Others base their classifications on the actual scores received in intelligence tests, e.g., superior or gifted children are those receiving scores of 120, 125, 130, 140, or over. The frequency of such children definitely depends on the definition used. Confer with your supervising teacher about the definition used in your school. Once you have determined the definition, your next step is to identify the gifted children in your room.

Data helpful in identifying gifted children in school include mental ability as measured by intelligence tests, results of achievement tests, grades, and teacher judgment regarding study habits, attitude toward work, resourcefulness, originality, curi-

osity, effort, and reasoning ability. Your supervising teacher undoubtedly knows the gifted children in the room and will assist you in making plans for them. In identifying gifted children, be careful not to be unduly influenced by glibness of expression, obedience, confidence, appearance, neatness of work, or similar factors that may be found in children of varied ability. Remember that one individual mental test or two group mental tests constitute the minimum information needed to determine mental ability.

After you have identified the gifted children, there are several practical ways to provide an enriched program for them. The following techniques have been used by successful teachers in many different situations:

1. Invite originality and provide many opportunities for creative contributions in: (a) planning, discussing, and evaluating, (b) making slides, apparatus for science, charts, graphs, dioramas, diagrams, maps, and similar materials, (c) art and music, (d) creative and purposeful writing, play production, reports, independent research, debates, creative rhythms, pantomime, school newspaper and magazine production, (e) clubs, such as photography, story-writing, science, drama, choral speaking, nature, and astronomy, (f) service projects, such as school drives, community drives, safety campaigns, conservation, welfare programs, and Junior Red Cross, (g) organizing materials in files, scrapbooks, collections, and exhibits, (h) using community resources, such as libraries and museums, and (i) stimulating the child with challenging science activities that will foster interest in research projects and develop the scientific attitude.
2. Make available a variety of pamphlets, maps, books, and other resources so that they will be used with real effort. Encourage the use of varied resources to get additional information, differing points of view, and a clear understanding of problems and questions.
3. Make provision for individual and small-group work in which there is opportunity for independence in planning and doing. Motivate the child toward unlimited reading activities by encouraging him to delve deeply into subjects that interest him. For example, in using community resources, have individual gifted children propose projects they can carry out, such as field studies, interviews, trips to

museums, selective use of radio and television, analysis of current events on selected topics, and the organization of clippings and other documentary materials on community problems. Be sure to give guidance as needed in carrying out such projects so that needless



San Diego County

Provide opportunities for children to develop their special interests.

mistakes will be avoided and good public relations will be maintained.

4. Encourage individual planning and self-evaluation to promote each child's awareness of responsibility for his own behavior. Give guidance as needed when questions and problems arise. Set high standards of achievement and arrange for teacher-pupil conferences to insure the maximum development of the child.

5. Avoid unnecessary drill, busy work, and other nonessential activities so that boredom, poor attitudes toward school, and laziness

will not develop. Provide a rich and stimulating program that challenges abilities, interests, and talents. Remember that gifted children possess a real desire to learn and are challenged by real problems.

6. Do not assume that work habits, basic skills, and knowledge are inherited or will develop incidentally in the classroom. Give specific guidance, practice, review, and instruction as needed so that each gifted child will develop sound backgrounds without gaps or blank spots in his learning.



Oakland

All children need experiences involving handwork.

7. Avoid emphasis upon competitive academic activities that may lead gifted pupils to become conceited and intolerant of others. Avoid undue stress upon awards and the use of graphs showing class achievement. Individual growth and achievement records are far more effective in terms of motivation and much less hurtful in terms of the feelings of typical children.

8. Provide a well-rounded program of activities, including handcrafts as well as intellectual pursuits. Seek to develop competence in physical, mechanical, artistic, and intellectual activities as well as in

special interests. Remember that a well-rounded personality can and should be developed by gifted children as well as by others.

9. Emphasize group processes, concern and respect for others, social responsibilities, and consideration for others so that intolerance and disregard for children of lesser ability will not develop. Encourage teamwork in group enterprises and provide small-group work with children of varying abilities, as in the making of posters, murals, and maps. Learning to share, to take turns, and not to monopolize activities involving others, and to do so in a manner that does not reflect a patronizing attitude, is an important democratic learning for the gifted.

SLOW-LEARNING CHILDREN

In this section attention is given to slow-learning children who are reasonably educable in regular classrooms. Children with serious mental retardation and the feeble-minded are considered in sections immediately following.

The aims of education for the slow learner are similar to those for the normal learner. In the regular classroom, where you will always have one or more slow learners, you are confronted with the challenging and difficult but not insurmountable task of helping these pupils to make a happy and successful school adjustment at their particular levels of ability.

Take into account the following generally accepted academic characteristics of the slow-learning pupil: (1) a shorter attention span, (2) a lesser ability to concentrate, (3) a lesser ability to transfer learning, (4) a greater need for stimulation and motivation for learning, (5) a greater need for individual attention, (6) a greater need for using concrete experiences for learning, (7) a greater need for praise, reward, and commendation on a personal or group basis, depending on chronological age, (8) a lesser ability to work with abstractions, and (9) a need for more opportunities to experience success in his work.

You can give real help to the slow learner by always working with him in the following manner: (1) Accept him for what he is; do not expect more from him than he can give with reasonable

effort. (2) Encourage him; do not be critical. (3) Be patient at all times. (4) Always try to use a positive approach; avoid negative suggestions. (5) Encourage the acceptance of the child by the class, and encourage his companionship with other children. (6) Give him status; let him know by your words and actions that he is secure. (7) Look for his abilities; you already know his disabilities. (8) Remember that he is far more similar to than different from his peers.

Slow-learning children can profit from instruction geared to their abilities, needs, and interests. As a group, they are below average in academic school work, may tend to lack social competence, may exhibit negative behavior such as teasing, bullying, fighting, and other attention-getting devices, or may strike back at school work that is not adjusted to their capabilities. Slow learners may be poorly adjusted members of the group who lack self-confidence and the will to try school work because of frequent failures in the past. Yet many of them have play and social interests similar to those of typical children and may even be leaders in these nonacademic areas.

Never forget that slow-learning children are not necessarily mentally handicapped. Other causes for slow learning may be glandular irregularities, emotional disturbances, physical defects (vision, hearing, lowered vitality), lack of motivation, poor habits of study, too many out-of-school responsibilities, unsettled home conditions, and poor instruction. Occasionally a pupil with a high I.Q. may be labeled a slow learner simply because he is bored with what is going on. Obviously, each case must be studied individually to determine the causes and to plan a program of instruction that fits individual needs.

The slow learner who is mentally handicapped may be identified by means of an individual mental test given by a qualified examiner, and by means of a thorough study of his school, family, and medical history. Slow learners usually score between about 75 and 90 on intelligence tests. Approximately five per cent of a large sampling of pupils will fall into this range of scores. This means that in an ungrouped class of 35 pupils you

may expect to find two or more slow learners. Some schools group pupils in such a manner that many more may be found in certain classrooms. The point is that the chances are quite good, regardless of grouping, that in a regular classroom you must always accept the slow learner as a participating member of the class, and must, therefore, be prepared to adjust and pace the work so that the slow learner will profit up to his fullest abilities.

In planning for slow learners, remember that all children need to become competent in the areas of healthful living, safety, family living, use of leisure time, personal and social problems, human relations, conservation, consumers' problems, and civic responsibilities. In addition to these minimum essentials, give attention as well to skill in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and to experiences in art, music, and handiwork. All too frequently, handwork, monotonous drill, and busy work monopolize the program established for slow learners.

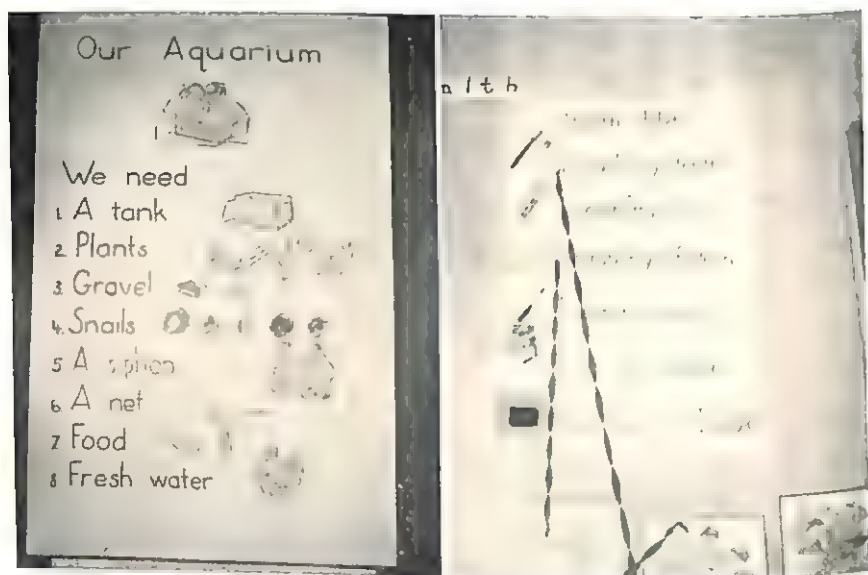
Avoid attaching a stigma to any individual or group in your class. Be tactful in grouping, in providing special materials, and in giving individual guidance. Arrange situations in which slow learners participate along with the others—for instance, sharing, singing, playing, folk-dancing, listening, constructing, drawing, painting, acting, and serving (as monitors and committee members, or in drives). Avoid using such expressions as "dumb bunnies," "dull group," and "boneheads." Never say, "This group can't learn a thing," and "Why try to teach them?"

Make up your mind to insure maximum growth and learning for each pupil in the class by starting at his level, selecting materials that he can handle and that are interesting to him, and using procedures that are meaningful. Plan and work without strain or tension. Realize that only a sympathetic, patient, and understanding teacher can help slow learners to make progress. Never allow worries and undue concerns to cut down your efficiency as a teacher. Rather, do the best you can with the materials and time available.

Have practical and immediate goals in mind that make sense

to slow learners, such as learning how to measure boards needed in construction, learning words needed in writing letters to friends, learning safety rules to use at home, and making charts on directions to follow in caring for plants. Provide for immediate use of what is learned so that motivation, retention, and ability to make applications will be improved.

Provide work that each pupil can do successfully, work that is on his level of ability and that is interesting and challenging to



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Make charts related to group needs.

him. Determine interests, hobbies, and any special abilities that the slow learner possesses. Relate reading and other school work to these interests in order to secure higher motivation. Select easy-to-read textbooks, library books, and other materials that will enable the child to extend his interests. Make experience charts based on firsthand experiences and use them to improve growth in vocabulary and reading.

Relate the work to previous experiences the children have had so that terms and concepts will be useful to them. Develop spe-

cific meanings of terms through the use of pictures, objects, and discussions of personal experiences. Plan and develop concrete experiences such as field trips, construction, care of an aquarium or other room equipment, sewing, and making murals, charts, and posters. Relate work in the skill subjects to these experiences.

Provide clear and specific directions, demonstrations to clarify points, and special help as difficulties arise. Plan and carry out individual and small-group work especially designed to meet individual needs. Provide adequate review because of the shorter memory span of slow learners. Be sure that individual work sheets are easy to use and based on specific needs. In giving directions and making assignments, bring out practical ways in which the assigned work will help them at home, in school, and in the community.

In teaching skill subjects, make use of concrete experiences and audio-visual materials. Build meanings first and then relate subsequent practice to the functional use of skills in buying, selling, making change, finding directions for sewing and construction, measuring, and so forth. Provide practice in reading signs, labels, directions, notices, announcements, experience charts, and other materials related to everyday living. In written work, give attention to letter-writing, spelling frequently used words, listing common items (such as food to be purchased at the store), writing directions and announcements, making labels and captions, and similar experiences that have an immediate application to everyday living.

You can best teach reading to slow learners by first discovering the cause of their slow or retarded reading rate. Determine if any physical deficiency, such as poor vision, poor hearing, or lowered vitality, is responsible. When you have satisfied yourself that the existing physical deficiencies can be accommodated, determine each child's ability for reading. This can usually be established by going over records of the child's previous schooling, by administering reading readiness tests, diagnostic reading tests, and mental ability tests, by analyzing individual case-studies, and by observing classroom performance. After you have

discovered each child's personal interests, decide what special techniques and materials are appropriate in terms of level of difficulty and content. The child should never be taught to read from grade-level readers that are beyond his ability, regardless of his grade placement. This approach may require a longer period before the younger child develops reading readiness, but it will be well worth it. Try to discover low-level books with high social appeal, and functional reading materials that will catch his interest. In reading, as in other subjects, several short periods of instruction are more valuable than one long period, because the slow learner's attention span is relatively short. It is important for all children that you make careful preparation for each lesson; it is doubly important for the slow learner. Attention-getting techniques and activities pay great dividends in working with the slow learner. Interesting, meaningful, and repetitive exercises also help the slow learner.

Give attention to gradation and sequence in your instruction. Develop vocabulary slowly and systematically, with frequent reviews. Use an appropriate word list to assure the learning of words that are most commonly used in reading and spelling. Teach each step in arithmetic meaningfully and completely before moving ahead. Be careful to use simple, understandable terms in experience charts, labels, directions, announcements, and independent work sheets.

Learn and use specialized techniques in skill subjects by consulting appropriate publications such as those listed at the end of this chapter.

MENTALLY RETARDED CHILDREN

Once academic work has begun, you will be able to detect the mentally retarded child in the regular classroom quite easily. The following characteristics are usually indicative:

1. Shorter attention span.
2. Limited ability to concentrate.

3. Limited ability to transfer learning.
4. Greater need for stimulation and motivation in learning.
5. Need for more individual attention and instruction.
6. Need for concrete experience.
7. Greater need for praise and commendation.
8. Inability to work successfully with abstractions.

It is generally accepted that children are mentally retarded who have intelligence quotients of not higher than 75 or 80 as determined by an individual intelligence examination administered by a qualified examiner. But information from examinations must be coupled with a study of the child's health data, opinions formed by his teachers, his previous progress in school, and other pertinent information. Mental retardation may be caused by any one or a combination of the following factors: disease and accidents before, during, or after birth; heredity; malfunctioning of the endocrine glands, brain and/or nervous system; emotional disturbances; and environmental factors.

When you have mentally retarded children in your class, you will be confronted with the challenging and difficult task of helping them to make a happy and successful school adjustment at their particular levels of ability. Mentally retarded children should be given concrete and functional instruction in small amounts, with many meaningful repetitions. This means that you must plan each child's day very carefully, giving attention to the readiness program, social adjustment skills, playground activities, and so forth. You may often have to re-write certain materials in order to delete difficult concepts.

Some mentally retarded children can eventually memorize arithmetic facts, simple experience charts, words from a spelling list, and health rules, but it is extremely doubtful that they actually learn things that are not closely connected with their everyday experiences. As previously stated, mentally retarded children have great difficulty in transferring their learning; they also forget skills that they seem to have learned. Never become frustrated over their performance, however. Remember that a high degree of patience must be maintained with these children.

Mentally retarded children want recognition, self-respect, success, and prestige just as other children do. Unless they are ridiculed, punished, rejected, or ignored, they seldom offer serious behavior problems. Mentally retarded children cannot be pushed beyond their ability to do school work.

The following is a list of methods and attitudes you may want to consider in working with mentally retarded children. Note that these methods and attitudes are also applicable to "normal" children. It is, however, very important that mentally retarded children always be approached in this way because of the likelihood that they will not receive these considerations in their out-of-school environment:

1. Accept the children for what they are. Do not expect more from them than what they can give.
2. Encourage them. Do not be critical.
3. Be patient at all times.
4. Always use positive suggestions; avoid the negative approach.
5. Encourage the acceptance of the children by the group and encourage their companionship with them.
6. Give the children status; let them know by your words and actions that they are secure.
7. Look for their abilities as well as for their disabilities.
8. Remember that all children are more alike than they are different.
9. Try to be understanding of the parents' point of view. No parent has ever asked for a handicapped child; no child has ever asked to be handicapped.
10. Be fair but not oversolicitous.

Mentally retarded children in the primary grades are often enrolled in regular classes on a part-time basis. Many schools feel that the children have a basic right to attend school for at least a part of the day so long as their behavior is not inimical to the welfare of the group and so long as they profit to some degree from social contacts and exposure to academic materials. Arranging a shorter day for these educable children appears preferable to eliminating them from school until they are "eligible" for a

special class. The principal of the school usually makes such arrangements.

MENTALLY DEFICIENT CHILDREN

The mentally deficient child is variously described in the following terms: he has an I.Q. of 50 or below; he is incapable of learning subject matter; he may be trained to memorize a few words, colors, and numbers, but they will have little practical significance to him; he needs a sheltered and closely supervised environment during his school years and perhaps for his lifetime; he has experienced a brain injury or suffers arrested mental development resulting from conditions before, during, or after birth.

You will probably have very few mentally deficient children in your classes even over a period of years, because: (1) their incidence in our population is not more than one in every two hundred, (2) parents usually do not send them to school because of their obvious immaturity or the advice of physicians or other child specialists, (3) some of them are enrolled in special classes for mentally deficient children by the time they reach the chronological ages of eight or nine. Nevertheless, you may occasionally meet such children in the classroom, especially in the primary grades in rural and small suburban areas. It is for this reason that mentally deficient children are briefly discussed here.

Teachers are sometimes quite confused when a mentally deficient child is enrolled in their classes. Here they find a child who at six years may be functioning as a three-year-old, for example. The teacher may be told that the child has been over-protected at home and will quickly adjust, or that he was examined by a doctor who said he would "snap out of it." In working with such a child, realize that neither the child nor his parents wished this condition. Remember, too, that he must be given the benefit of the doubt during a fair trial in group experiences.

Very few parents are willing to accept the opinion of a doctor, psychologist, psychiatrist, or other child specialist unless they

are given the "right" answer. If one specialist fails to give them hope, they often seek others who are "kinder" and more encouraging. For this reason alone, parents sometimes demand that their child be given a trial in a group situation. Such a trial for a mentally deficient child may help his parents to accept his deficiencies and to decide that placement in a special class would be more suitable. Remember that parents naturally have great hopes for their children. You, as a child's teacher, may be the first to recognize his mental deficiency. The final decision, however, should be made by a competent expert.

The mentally deficient child has several observable characteristics. He is less mature than his peers. He has difficulty in following other than very simple directions. He may have the tendency to forget the skills he learns from day to day. He is unable to follow unless concrete examples are used. He is the last in class in most of the activities requiring reading, speaking, and writing. He has little ability for abstract thinking; his ability to transfer learnings is small. The older the mentally deficient child is, the more obvious these characteristics will be.

On the positive side of the ledger, you will find the mentally deficient child eager to please you in any way he can—if he has not been discouraged too many times previously. In the lower primary grades, he may even become the classroom "pet." He will be most happy in work requiring physical and social activity. He will be most unhappy in activities requiring an attention span of more than a few minutes. Some mental deficients are capable of memorizing a few words (which parents may call "reading") or simple arithmetic facts. Mentally deficient children have learned to write numbers and their names, or to perform a few other very simple writing exercises, after weeks, months, and perhaps years of individual attention. However, their progress is usually so slow and the value of the skill so slight that some school systems have decided not to make their instruction the responsibility of the classroom teacher.

If you do happen to work with a mentally deficient child, here are a few suggestions: (1) try to keep him happy, (2) pace the

work and activities up to his fullest abilities, (3) arrange for him to experience success in some activity, (4) be kind but objective with his parents. Preface your remarks to parents with such a phrase as, "At this time, your child is. . . ."

The very young mentally deficient child in the kindergarten or first grade requires a full course of training in proper ways to eat, dress, keep tidy, go to the toilet, and behave with good manners. Encourage him to watch and listen attentively to you when you are instructing him. It may be necessary to repeat the training over and over again. He will learn most readily through a habituated pattern; a routine on a regular schedule is essential. He learns better when you *show* and *tell* him than when you simply *tell* him something and expect him to perform it automatically. Make the tasks simple but let him know that you expect him to complete them. Have patience; do not make him overdependent by doing too many things for him. Make each activity a game, if possible. Encourage him to *want* to do things. Finally, praise him at every possible opportunity, either verbally or through a gesture.

The child of seven or eight and older will not profit from book work. The best of the mental deficient are seldom ready to learn to read until they are about twelve years of age; hence the program in reading and related subjects up to that age must be readiness work. Such a program will require ingenious methods on your part, particularly as the social age of the child increases. You may have to develop his reading readiness by having him look at pictures, listen to others, go on tours, use audio and visual aids, learn proper handling of reading materials, and engage in conversational periods. Arithmetic readiness may be taught through games in which sizes are compared visually, orally, or kinesthetically, or which require the use of numbers, counting, and naming. Writing readiness will not be achieved until the child has developed fair muscular coordination and has accepted a reason that makes writing seem important; manuscript writing should probably be the goal. Few mental deficient at thirteen or fourteen will ever be able to achieve more,

academically, than the average first-grader. But many can learn simple social courtesies and socially acceptable behavior by the time they reach their 'teens.

As soon as mentally deficient children are able to handle tools and materials safely, encourage them to work with crayons, water paints, chalk-drawing, ceramics, clay-modeling, sandbox work, woodwork, weaving, knitting, domestic arts, and other crafts. The program for the mentally deficient child should help him to: (1) take care of his needs and himself, (2) get along with his playmates and classmates, and (3) use tools and skills up to his ability. These objectives can best be achieved in an environment in which the child is happy, relaxed, and cheerful.

CHILDREN WITH SPEECH DEFECTS¹

Children whose speech is so different that it brings undue attention from classmates, or impedes normal oral communication, can be said to be defective. The range of normal speech is great. Children who have drawls, dialects, or twangs are not ordinarily considered to be in need of speech therapy. A good teacher will usually aim at speech standards that she herself can demonstrate through good speech and language usage, and through speech-improvement jingles, rhymes, creative dramatics, and other techniques. This section does not concern itself with ordinary speech improvement, important as that is, but with actual speech disorders or defects.

The ability to speak clearly may very well determine a child's success in his entire language-arts program. It can adversely affect his progress in reading, spelling, writing, and speaking, which in turn can influence the child's whole personality. Poor speech may be accompanied by social maladjustment, truancy, lethargy, an inferiority feeling, and other antisocial characteristics. Since the school environment, particularly in the elementary grades, is made up for the most part of talking and listening,

¹ Acknowledgment is made to Veronica Dickey, Speech Correctionist, Oakland Public Schools, for contributions to this section.

it is very important that speech defects in children be remedied as soon as possible.

About five or six out of each hundred elementary-school children have speech defects. The incidence, of course, is greater in the first four or five years of school. Actual speech re-education should be administered by a competently trained speech correc-



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Appropriate games, books, and toys help stimulate speech re-education.

tionist, and many school systems have such experts on their staffs. Always consult them before you attempt any correction yourself. Schools that do not have speech therapists sometimes arrange for classroom teachers to become familiar with corrective techniques.

The major speech disorders are grouped in three main categories. Most speech disorders (about 80 per cent) are classified as articulatory defects. This category includes lipping (*s*, *z*, *sh*, *zh*, *ch*, *j* sounds), substitutions (*wed* for *red*, *fan* for *than*, *wittle* for *little*, *sabe* for *save*, *lite* for *like*, etc.), additions (*Brilly* for

Billy), and slurring. The next most frequent speech disorder is stuttering (about 18 per cent). Terms such as stammering, hesitation, and blocking mean nearly the same thing, but they may be used to indicate different degrees of intensity. The next most important category includes special cases (one or two per hundred children) such as cleft palate, harelip, cerebral palsy, and aphasia. Untrained teachers should probably not try to work with this small group unless they are closely guided by speech specialists.

You will find it helpful to become familiar with the following list of consonant sounds that are considered typical for the given ages. Even here there are many exceptions, however.

Sounds *p, b, m, w,* and *h* are usually learned by $3\frac{1}{2}$ years of age.

Sounds *d, t, n, k, g, ng,* and *y* are usually learned by $4\frac{1}{2}$ years of age.

Sound *f* is usually learned by $5\frac{1}{2}$ years of age.

Sounds *v, th* (then), *zh, sh,* and *l* are usually learned by $6\frac{1}{2}$ years of age.

Sounds *z, s, r, th* (thin), and *wh* are usually learned by $7\frac{1}{2}$ years of age.

It is evident that a speech defect may not be a defect at all at certain ages, whereas at other times it may be so considered.

Speech defects are the results of: (1) the total environment of the child and his place in it, (2) growth interferences, such as illnesses, accidents, disease, hearing loss, traumatic experiences, and periods of insecurity, (3) adult misunderstanding of the child's speech progress, (4) heredity, and (5) speech models followed by the child.

You can best help the speech-disordered child by placing emphasis on: (1) getting him to relax physically and mentally while he speaks, (2) correcting indistinct, muffled, garbled, or careless speech by using rhymes and jingles that will motivate him to use his voice mechanism (lips, mouth, tongue, jaws, and breathing), and (3) developing voice quality, volume, and pitch that are not harsh, too loud, unnatural, or monotonous.

Stutterers. There are two major types of stutterers in the elementary schools. The young child up to six or seven may think so fast that he cannot find the words he wishes to use. He is suffering from a lag between speech development and language development. Such a child is said to be a primary stutterer. This condition is ordinarily not considered serious and will usually ameliorate itself if attention is not directed to it. Wise parents and teachers treat primary stuttering casually.

If primary stuttering persists into the upper grades, or if stuttering begins in the upper grades, you have a fair warning that the child may have a speech defect that should be given attention. This is called secondary stuttering.

Secondary stuttering may be detected by the following symptoms:

1. Repetition of initial or accented sounds, such as "I-I-I will," "B-B-B-But, I did," or "I remem-mem-mem-member."
2. Frequent blocking on certain sounds, with evident physical struggle, such as facial contortions, jerking of hands, turning or jerking of head, stamping of feet, or rolling of eyeballs.
3. Consistent refusal to respond, with no outward evidence of a block; such behavior may be indicative of a "silent stammerer" who is sometimes erroneously considered defiant and stubborn.
4. Consistent hesitation, which may indicate confusion and fear; or consistent use of such excuses as, "I'm not prepared," or "I don't know."
5. Hurried, breathless, disjointed speech with little or no rhythm.

Keep the following suggestions in mind as you work with children who stutter:

1. Speech correction is more than sound correction; it is concerned with the child as a person. Emotional maladjustments must be given attention if real progress is to be made. Situations that create tension and nervousness must be avoided. Genuine friendliness and respect for each child are basic parts of therapy. Do everything possible to lessen tension, build confidence, promote relaxation, and develop feelings of security and belonging.

2. Give the child assurance that he will be called on only when he volunteers and that he will always be given sufficient time to make his contributions. Other children in the classroom should and will cooperate willingly, and will appreciate progress of the stutterer.

3. As a general rule, let the child finish what he begins to say, even though he blocks. If you interrupt him and complete the sentence, you may add to his feeling of failure, insecurity, and frustration.

4. Be sure *not* to put the child in competitive situations, which inevitably increase tension.

5. Meet the child's growth in speech control by providing opportunities for him to use newly developed skills in class. Be sure to use the techniques suggested by the speech correction teacher.

6. Never label the pupil as a stutterer. It is wise to avoid the term if possible.

7. Get to know the pupil personally. This can be done by visiting with him when he is alone before or after school or during lunch hours and recesses. Use his interests to attract his interest in you.

8. Help the pupil to create a pattern of success.

9. Plan conferences with the parents if possible. Remember that 99 per cent of stuttering is said to be caused by some emotional twist, experience, stress, or strain somewhere in the child's past or present environment. Parents may give you help in discovering the source of the trouble.

10. Consult the speech correctionist in your school. If there is no specialist, try to find one in a nearby school, hospital, or college.

HARD-OF-HEARING CHILDREN²

Approximately 5 per cent of any school population is known to be hard of hearing. The degree of hearing loss may be slight, moderate, or severe. In any event, most of these children will be enrolled in regular classes. Since a hearing loss is a physical disability, the school nurse should be consulted for the medical history of the case. If there is no school nurse, the permanent record of each child may indicate his hearing status.

² Acknowledgment is made to Helen S. Potter, Teacher of Lip-Reading, Oakland Public Schools, for contributions to this section.

Many times you will be the first to observe that a child is hard of hearing; be sure to advise the school nurse, principal, and parent immediately.

A child may be hard of hearing when he reveals one or more of the following symptoms:

1. A listless, weary, or frowning expression.
2. Frequent requests for repetition of words and instructions.
3. Constant "What?" "Huh?" "What did you say?" or similar phrases.
4. Mispronunciation of words.
5. Turning one ear toward the teacher.
6. Giving an answer unrelated to a direct question.
7. Inattention; voice or speech peculiarities.
8. Continued failures in school grades.
9. Ear aches; head noises; discharging ears.
10. Failure to respond when questioned.
11. Watching the teacher's lips rather than the eyes.
12. Frequent colds.
13. Mouth breathing.
14. Undue fatigue during reading, listening, or spelling exercises.
15. Withdrawal from group activities.
16. Irritability.
17. Misbehavior as an attention-getting device.
18. Speech symptoms:
 - (a) Voice: high-pitched, dull, weak, or loud.
 - (b) Sound substitutions: *t* for *k*, *s* for *z*, *k* for *sk*, *ts* for *s*, etc.
 - (c) Omission of endings and other sounds: *ing*, *ed*, vowels, consonants.
 - (d) Careless production of sounds: *l*, *r*, *k*, *t*, *th*, *sh*, *ch*, *p*, *f*, *v*, *s*, etc.

Moderately and seriously hard-of-hearing children are usually given lip-reading instruction by trained specialists. Most hard-of-hearing children will try to read lips automatically; special training, of course, helps these children to learn the art more efficiently and adeptly. Research has indicated that the art of lip-reading is not highly correlated with intelligence.

You can give the hard-of-hearing child maximum help in the classroom if you will:

1. Stress and practice clear enunciation.
2. Speak in a natural tone.
3. Avoid overly exaggerated lip movements.
4. Keep hands away from your face when talking.
5. Make sure the child can see your face when conversation is going on.



Become familiar with the operation of properly prescribed hearing aids for hard-of-hearing children.

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6. Get the child's attention by eye, touching, or inconspicuously gesturing to him when he is being spoken to.
7. Encourage child to participate in class activities.
8. Watch for signs of child's withdrawal from group.
9. Expect the child to have a shorter attention span because of his strain in listening (and watching).
10. Refrain from scolding the child for lack of response.
11. Refuse to allow the child to use his hearing loss as an excuse.
12. Try to avoid calling attention to the child's defect.
13. Treat the child as a normal member of the class.

14. Face the light when speaking and have the child's back to the light.
15. Use as many visual aids as possible.
16. Make assignments, instructions, and directions as explicit as possible.
17. Allow the child a preferred seat near you; if you move about the room, give the child "roving seat" permission.
18. Cooperate with specialists assigned—e.g., teacher of lip-reading, nurse, doctor.
19. Be careful not to talk and write at the chalkboard at the same time.
20. Be careful not to move about while speaking.
21. Use similar words in sentences so that a clue is given to their meanings through context.
22. Encourage and supervise the recommended use of hearing aids. Treat them as you do eyeglasses.
23. Allow a classmate to help the child during study and recitation.

DEAF CHILDREN

Most deaf children will probably be enrolled in special classes or schools designed to offer them the special training they need to develop speech and language. However, more and more deaf children are being placed in the regular school. Some schools have special day classes for the deaf in separate parts of the building. If that is true in your school, you may have the privilege of working with the child for short periods and observing him in assembly programs, on the playground, during physical education, and during rhythm activities. Other deaf children may, because of previous training and background, be enrolled in regular classes over a longer period of time: such children are ordinarily found in the upper grades of the elementary schools and only occasionally in the lower grades.

For all practical purposes, the deaf child is no different in appearance from hearing children. It is not necessarily true that you can detect a deaf child just by looking at his face. Deaf children may be mute, but they are not "dumb" in the sense of

lacking mental ability. Research indicates that the mental abilities in any random sampling of deaf children are similar to a comparable sampling of hearing children. The deaf have no "extra" sense, but obviously they develop their visual abilities to a greater degree than normal, since they must "see to hear." Deaf children have normal interests and are intrigued by the same visual appeals as are hearing children. They are able to participate in group experiences with hearing children. These and other characteristics of the deaf child must be understood if you are to give him a "fair break" in the regular classroom.

One of the first differences you will note in the deaf child is his inability to speak normally. If he is able to speak at all, you must get used to his voice, which is usually flat and monotonous. Make an effort to get the class to accept the deaf child by explaining his inability to speak well or not at all.

Hearing children have been known to strike a deaf child to get him to talk or to get his attention. Point out that his attention can be easily attracted by tapping one's foot on the floor, motioning in his line of vision, or touching him; the latter two are preferable to the former.

If and when a deaf child volunteers to speak, he may appear to be rude because of his physical effort to get attention. Actually, he is trying to express himself the best he can.

A deaf child will make the greatest progress in learning the art of lip-reading if you speak in a normal voice. There is no reason to shout, since the deaf child cannot hear. Shouting distorts the mouth, lips, and other parts of the speaking mechanism and prevents the child from reading your lips. Furthermore, shouting or loud speaking may lead you to develop nervous tension, which in turn is inevitably reflected by the other pupils in the class. According to research, lip-reading ability has very little correlation with intelligence. Most individuals can learn to read lips if they must; some do it better than others. Some children are natural lip-readers. Excellent lip-readers are found in low, middle, and high ability groups. You cannot look at a child's I.Q. and predict his lip-reading adeptness.

Of course, when you are working with a deaf child you cannot take the place of a teacher of the deaf who has had special training. You can, however, become acquainted with specialists in the school system or consult the professional library for publications on the education of the deaf. You can learn many helpful techniques from experience, reading, and from trained teachers of



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Deaf children should participate with hearing children in many activities. (The deaf children in this picture are the boy and girl sitting across from each other at the extreme left of the table.)

the deaf; this is particularly true in developing an awareness of certain sounds and words in our language, and in devising kineshetic approaches for teaching these sounds and words. (See references at end of chapter.)

You will also want to learn many pertinent facts about each child's family and background. Such information is especially important in working with the deaf child. The desire of the parents for the child to be as "normal" as the hearing child is great. Parents can help to develop speech and language at home.

Although the hearing child learns through auditory means during all his waking hours, the deaf child must have help outside school and in school each day in order to progress satisfactorily.

Take extra pains to brief the deaf child on what may happen in the classroom during certain activities; otherwise he may become confused. For example, he should know what will happen during folk dancing, music appreciation, and clapping games. Encourage him to participate on the playground during recesses, before and after school, and during the lunch hour. He can learn rhythms and folk dancing along with hearing children through the media of bone conduction and imitation. Game rules should be carefully explained before the game and during the activity, if necessary.

VISUALLY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN ³

Visually handicapped children may be classified as (1) those with corrected defects who need care and protection, (2) those who require special sight-saving provisions, and (3) those who require special tactual training. In this section attention is given to those who need care and protection in using their eyes, and to those requiring sight-saving provisions. Special tactual training, which must be given by special teachers, is not considered.

You can help identify children with poor vision by noting such symptoms as watering of the eyes, bloodshot eyes, swollen or red eyelids, crusts on lids and lashes, sties, and frequent complaints of headaches, dizziness, or nausea. Also, try to note behavioral indications of visual difficulties. Pupils with visual defects frequently do the following:

1. Attempt to brush away a blur, rub their eyes more than normal children, blink frequently when reading, and "screw up" their faces when reading or looking at distant objects.
2. Become inattentive during reading and other activities that require fine visual discrimination.

³ Acknowledgment is made to Fredericka M. Bertram, Teacher of Sight Conservation, Oakland Public Schools, for contributions to this section.

3. Hold books close to their eyes, hold themselves in a tense manner when looking at books, and squint or thrust their bodies forward in looking at distant objects.

4. Sometimes have fits of temper during reading or close work.

5. Close or cover one eye and tilt head when reading.

6. Complain of dizziness, pain in eyes, nausea, or blurring.

The following suggestions will be helpful in meeting the needs of children with visual handicaps:

Provide the best possible lighting; give attention to window shades, elimination of glare and shadows, use of artificial light as needed, and seating arrangements that avoid having pupils face the windows. Allow the children to change their seats when lighting conditions are poor. Urge the same care and attention to lighting at home. Be sure that there is nothing in the room that will add to the fatigue that is invariably caused by impaired vision.

Do not require work that involves exacting visual tasks for long and successive periods of time. Provide rest periods at regular intervals so that tension and eye strain will be avoided. Urge all children to utilize regular rest periods as a part of good reading and study habits. Encourage good habits of bodily posture.

Materials suited to use by partially sighted pupils are matte-finish, widely spaced, heavily lined paper; heavy, dark pencils; visual materials with sharp contrast, such as black on white or cream; independent work prepared on typewriters with Magna-type or Primer-sized type; large, heavily outlined maps; special textbooks in 18- or 24-point, heavily leaded type; enlarged materials and outlines; enlarged tests; selected pictures and other visual materials; compilation of enlarged word lists that are essential to the completion of assignments; sturdy reading stands with about a 60-degree slant that will hold books and other reading materials; and non-glossy paper in reading materials whenever possible. These pupils are sometimes taught "touch" typing, and techniques of learning by listening. Manuscript writing is often encouraged.

BLIND CHILDREN

Blind children usually attend special classes or schools, because the techniques for reading and writing are very different from those used by normally seeing or partially sighted children. However, there is an increasing trend toward placing blind pupils with seeing pupils for certain periods of the day. This is done during periods when blindness is not necessarily a handicap, such as story-telling, radio listening, and assembly programs. Some blind children, through special-class training, have acquired enough proficiency in Braille writing and reading to participate in nearly all the academic and non-academic work periods. More and more senior-high-school, and in some cases junior-high-school, blind pupils are participating in regular classroom activities on a part-time basis. Blind children can usually attend nursery and kindergarten classes without any difficulties, provided necessary help and attention are given by the teacher.

Blindness can be either partial or complete. According to the laws of many states, persons having visual acuity of 20/200 or less after correction and in the better eye are considered to be blind. With visual acuity of 20/200 or less after correction it is usually impossible to use, or learn to use, conventional reading materials used by seeing children. It is possible for some blind persons to differentiate between light and dark and even to note outlines of objects and streets.

Obviously, blindness restricts a child's range and variety of experiences as well as his ability to get about. The congenitally blind person must be told about many of the things a seeing person takes for granted—e.g., grass, sky, stars, houses, streets, cars, babies, food, and colors. However, the blind person can comprehend and "see" many of the things about him by using the kinesthetic approach—that is, by feeling and touching objects. In reading, he must use Braille methods.

The mental attitude of a blind person will depend on various factors, the most important being: (1) degree of blindness, (2)

time of onset of blindness, (3) cause of blindness, and (4) prognosis for seeing at some future time.

Blind children need to be given encouragement and assurance because of existing attitudes toward the blind, including: (1) The belief that the blind are liabilities and wards of society rather than members. (2) The tendency to label the blind in one fashion or another, depending on the experiences of the seeing individual with the blind; to one person the blind may be ungracious persons, to another they may be beggars, another may regard them as persons with remarkable memories. (3) An over-solicitous attitude toward the blind, accompanied by a feeling of superiority.

The advantages of having young blind children enrolled in pre-school (nursery or kindergarten) classes are many. Constructive attitudes can be formed, the seeing as well as the blind can learn to get along with each other, and regular habits of living can be established. After such training, the blind children's new experiences with seeing individuals will not be so disturbing.

If you are to work with a blind child, you must have the close cooperation of parents, eye doctor, special-class teacher, and any others who are influential in guiding the child. You will not be expected to be a teacher of the blind; however, it is not unreasonable for the school administration to ask you to accept a blind child in your class if he is closely guided by a teacher of the blind or if he can benefit from non-Braille activities in the "seeing" classroom.

Certain adjustments, such as location of seat and provision of helpers, will not only help the blind child, but will help seeing children to understand the attributes and similarities of interests, urges, and personalities of blind children.

The following are general suggestions that you may use in working with a blind child in the classroom:

1. The same over-all objectives and standards may be established if you remember that the blind child differs in only one way from the seeing child—blindness.

2. The seeing pupils should probably be prepared for the introduction of a blind child to the group. No elaborate explanation need be made, especially with young groups. Questions should be permitted and answered briefly and directly.

3. The blind child should be adequately oriented to the physical layout of the classroom. This will not take long and will allay both his fears and yours.

4. The blind child should be given his assignments orally; they should be written for him if they are to be taken home. If the child is receiving Braille instruction or knows Braille, he should have the opportunity of writing this on his Braille slate. Close cooperation with the special teacher is necessary!

5. Once the blind child has become a part of the regular group, he can be given room duties. He can be relied upon to carry out his missions very well. It is not unusual for the blind child to be a class officer, a messenger (if he knows the physical layout of the school), or an office helper.

6. Arrange for seeing children to be readers on a voluntary basis. The seeing child will feel it a compliment; first, because it is a good deed; and secondly, because he is needed. In some instances, the blind child can help the reader in connection with articulation, comprehension, and pronunciation.

7. The blind child should be exposed to as many real successes as possible. His self-confidence should be built up by success, praise, and commendation.

CRIPPLED CHILDREN

Most crippled children are enrolled in the regular classrooms in public schools. This practice is in keeping with the belief that no physically handicapped child who can get along reasonably well should be segregated from the unimpaired population. When you work with a handicapped child, you are working with a child who has, in addition to his handicap, feelings, a personality, problems, and aspirations that are not very different from those of the unimpaired. Each child should learn that he must do the best he can in a population that includes many kinds of people—both handicapped and unhandicapped. The basic train-

ing that the handicapped child gets in mingling with other children will hold him in good stead when he reaches maturity and is expected to sustain himself. Children who have severe afflictions, and who need special attention or a protected school environment, should be enrolled in special classes or special schools



Oakland

A plastic splint for the wrist and forearm helps certain cerebral-palsied children control extraneous movements when writing.

for crippled children where proper facilities are available. Where such facilities are not available, crippled children are enrolled in regular classes in accordance with school policies. Hence, most schools have several crippled children enrolled.

There are many different types of crippled children, ranging from the child with braces or crutches, to wheelchair cases, and amputees of one sort or another. Other types include children with hidden or inconspicuous physical disabilities, such as a

cardiac condition, hemophilia, epilepsy, arrested tuberculosis, and malnutrition. You should know about these children. You can secure information about them from the school nurse, permanent records, health records, or parents.

The degree of special consideration that you will accord a crippled child depends on his physical condition. First, let us



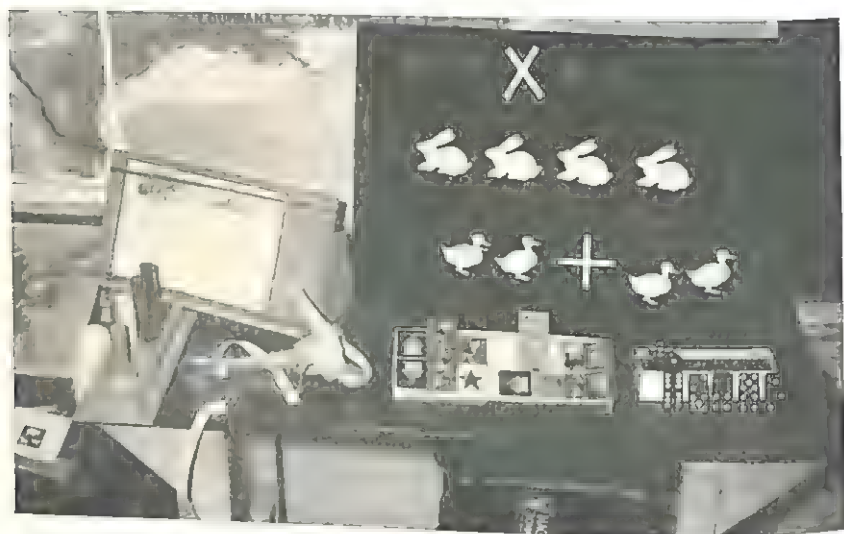
Oakland

Special furniture helps crippled children learn special skills, such as operating the electric typewriter.

discuss aids that will help you in working with an obviously handicapped child.

The first tendency of some people when they see a crippled person is to become overly sympathetic; on the other hand, others may try to overlook the handicap. Neither extreme will do much to help the feelings of the crippled individual. A more effective attitude involves several basic points: (1) Try to develop a realistic approach; give help as needed, yet encourage

the crippled child to carry out whatever activities he can. (2) Avoid oversentimentality; neither the child nor his parents will appreciate it. (3) Be considerate, but avoid gushy sympathy. (4) Try to foster independence on the part of the child. A physical handicap involves both the disability and the will to overcome it. (5) Avoid discussing the child with other parents, and



Oakland

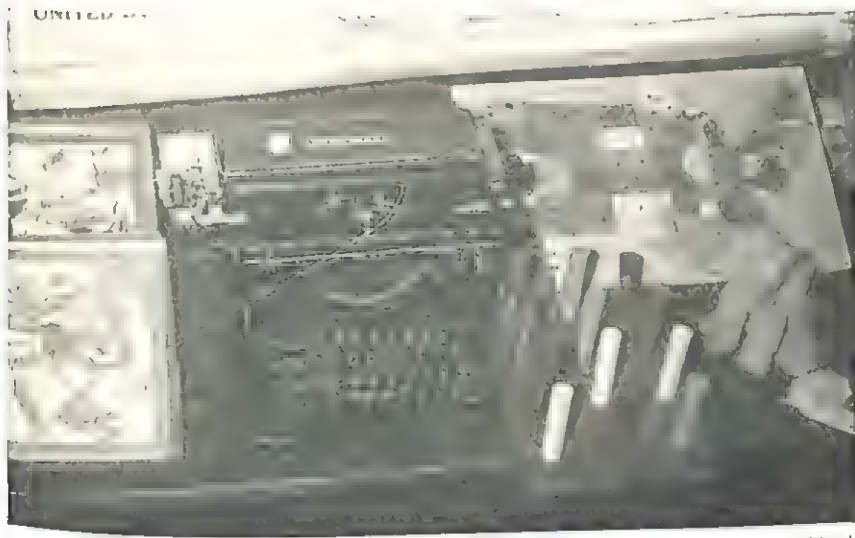
Educational toys and tools that may be used to help orthopedically handicapped children are large dominoes, card games, flannel board, splints and braces, reading stands, card holders, blocks, puzzles.

never make invidious comparisons. (6) Encourage a feeling of personal worth on the part of the child. Children have more assets than liabilities; concentrate on the assets in a realistic manner. (7) Be resourceful. You can make many modifications that will enable the crippled child to take part in group activities.

Most obviously crippled children are, or have been, under good medical direction. Many of them may be participating regularly in physical and occupational therapy or some other form of treatment. Adults who are working with crippled children outside the classroom, such as the nurse, therapist, ortho-

pedist, parent, psychiatrist, and pediatrician, are in a position to provide you with helpful information.

The child who is crippled must be made as physically comfortable as possible if a rich learning environment is to be provided for him. Special consideration should be given to his seating arrangements in the classroom. A handicapped child should not be conspicuously placed in the classroom, nor should



Oakland

Orthopedically handicapped children can develop better hand dexterity by using typewriters,igsaw puzzles, sponge blocks, peg boards.

he be seated in such a way that his disabilities make it impossible for him to see the chalkboard, to participate in group work, or to work with fellow pupils who can give him assistance.

Study the crippled child's records, giving attention to medical data, mental ability, and results of achievement tests before and after the crippling. Determine what the child can and cannot do, how well he can communicate in speech, reading, and typing (if necessary), how much help he needs, and how he can help himself in such activities as eating, using pencils, crayons, and scissors, and handling books and paper. Find out why a crippled

child cannot do certain things. Decide whether his difficulties are attributable to an actual physical handicap or to lack of motivation, below-average mentality, lack of opportunities, lack of home cooperation, or a defeatist attitude.

Keep in mind that a series of successes by the crippled child will do wonders in helping him succeed at new tasks. If they are motivated properly, many crippled children will do as well or better academically than unimpaired children, because they cannot engage in activities requiring physical prowess and will spend relatively more time in quiet activities closely related to school work. Many crippled children improve physically with maturation and medical treatment; this is particularly true for post-polio cases.

You will also want to make a close study of children who have inconspicuous disabilities (such as cardiac condition, hemophilia, or arrested tuberculosis). People who work with such children sometimes fail to observe important cautions, simply because the children "look" perfectly fit. If you have this tendency, a consultation with the directing doctor, plus the acquisition of further knowledge of the subject through reading, may help to increase your awareness. As with the obviously crippled child, the inconspicuously crippled child should not be pampered but should develop as normally as possible up to his physical ability.

SOCIALLY MALADJUSTED CHILDREN

Most authorities agree that social maladjustment in children is indicated by: (1) truancy, (2) incorrigibility, (3) delinquency, (4) serious problems of behavior, and (5) emotional disturbances. In terms of education, it implies a lack of adjustment to the school routine and environment, with resulting antisocial behavior.

Experts disagree on the extent of social maladjustment present in schools. Some have reported that from one to ten per cent of the school population are socially maladjusted to the degree

that school personnel are concerned with them. Some studies and reviews of records in schools indicate that boys are more likely to be socially maladjusted than girls.

The following are the most frequently mentioned causes of social maladjustment: bad companionship, bewilderment caused by demands and attitudes of adults, lack of parental affection, inconsistency in discipline, neighborhood conditions, school failure, broken homes, socio-economic class frustrations, differences in family cultural backgrounds, commercial recreation outlets, mental retardation, and lack of supervision during summer vacations.

It is your responsibility to help identify maladjusted children and to establish a preventive program as well as a program designed to overcome social maladjustments after the symptoms and underlying causes have been discovered. Some authorities believe that serious cases of social maladjustment can be discovered by the age of six to eight years, and less severe cases by nine or ten. In any event, it is believed that social maladjustment can be discovered before the child leaves elementary school.

The following may be helpful to you in identifying socially maladjusted children: cumulative folder records that have information on health and mental status, and educational progress reports; personality tests; sociograms or friendship scales; incidental and analytical observations; individuals from child-study departments; counselors; guidance specialists; psychological clinics; mental hygiene departments; "like and dislike" games about sports, reading, television, movies, and radio programs; the "three-wishes" game, in which the children are asked what three (non-material) things they would want if they could have them; "What I want to be" papers; and informal talks and conferences with parents. The last four activities should be permissive and suggestive only; never force a child to express his personal feelings. Word your directions to him so that he can graciously accept or reject the idea without losing face. Remember that you are in the key position for detecting social maladjustment.

When you feel confident of the existence of social maladjustment, it is time to make an initial referral to guidance workers. The referral is brought to the attention of the principal, who in turn usually refers the case to expertly trained personnel if they are available. Outstanding cases will probably be guided by the experts, although you may become responsible for carrying out any rehabilitative program.

Unfortunately, many socially maladjusted children are treated only for their overt actions. For example, a child who is playing truant may be literally forced to attend classes when deeper insight into the problem might reveal that simple class adjustments would bring about willing and regular attendance; or an incorrigible child with an "intolerable personality" may be punished in such a way that his condition is aggravated; or a delinquent may be treated as a criminal who does not deserve a second chance.

In any discussion of social maladjustment, we must exercise certain cautions. In a sense, adjustment means conformity. The range of conformity may vary greatly, depending upon the general behavior pattern prevailing, sex, family or cultural background, conditions in the home, conditions in the community, and health status. Research indicates that at one time teachers regarded misbehavior such as disobedience, cheating, lack of orderliness, impudence, and rudeness as much more serious than shyness, sullenness, fearfulness, meekness, and other recessive personality characteristics. In your student teaching, you will want to be aware of *all* abnormal behavior and to take steps to help all children who give indications of being socially maladjusted.

There is no panacea for social maladjustment. Plans must be individual and flexible so that they can be altered to accommodate future circumstances and situations that may arise. Any program of rehabilitation or prevention must be thought of as an aid to child development, and not as an end in itself; it must ultimately assist a child to adjust himself to an acceptable range of normal behavior.

Here are several suggestions that will help you: (1) be alert to signs of maladjustment; (2) be fair and objective; (3) try to make the classroom a happy, interesting, and secure environment for the child; (4) seek the guidance of specialists and cooperate in every way possible; (5) try to prevent social maladjustment as well as help ameliorate it; (6) develop a close liaison between the school and the home; (7) try to understand that the causes behind the symptoms must be reached if gains are to be made; (8) develop common-sense psychological approaches based on a thorough understanding of acceptable behavior for the child at his age, bearing in mind that what works for one child may not work for another; (9) remember that the attack on social maladjustment may be through educational, sociological, economic, psychological, and spiritual resources; and (10) assist in making case studies so that a fundamental program can be planned on the basis of studied needs.

Summary

The problem of meeting the needs of exceptional children is basically a problem of studying, and planning for, individual differences. After exceptional children are identified, they must be studied as individuals. Many of their needs can be met as units of work are developed. Other needs must be met through the use of special lessons and techniques. A variety of instructional resources are also required. Of special importance is a constructive attitude on your part. Each child must be accepted, respected, and guided in such a way that he achieves optimum development.

The needs, interests, and abilities of exceptional children and of typical children require the use of a variety of instructional resources. In addition to textbooks and other publications, community resources, audio-visual materials, and material prepared by teachers and pupils are utilized in a well-rounded program. The next three chapters outline in detail the types of resources that can be used effectively in student teaching.

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9

Using Community Resources

YOU WILL improve your effectiveness as a student teacher by using a variety of teaching resources and materials. Written and illustrative materials, such as flat pictures, pamphlets, magazines, and books, are among the most frequently used types. Good teachers use them extensively, though selectively. The vicarious or indirect learning experiences provided to your pupils by well-chosen materials are valuable, but they need to be supplemented by other more directly experienced activities.

Many superior teachers initiate units of work with pupils through the use of various kinds of direct experience. Later, they use written materials to extend, enrich, and deepen pupils' experiences, understandings, and appreciations. As a student teacher, it is essential that you learn how to use both types of pupil experience in planning to meet the needs of youth in school.

THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL

The modern school attempts to serve children and youth in school, out-of-school youth, and community adults. It uses the community as a learning laboratory, and it seeks to interpret, serve, and improve living within the total community. Perhaps the basic criterion of the effectiveness of any school is the extent to which it makes its community a better place in which to live.

Your student-teaching assignment may be in a school that transmits or interprets the culture of the community, helps pupils adjust to it, or seeks deliberately to improve it. Your school may

be a vital factor in many aspects of community living, or it may be isolated and insulated from it. The following criteria will help you judge the degree to which the school where you are working is community-centered:

1. Does it utilize the total plant and facilities as educational, recreational, and service centers for the community?
2. Does it provide and operate many kinds of services cooperatively with other community agencies?
3. Does it discover and use community problems, resources, and needs in developing its curriculum?
4. Does it provide leadership in coordinating the total educational resources of the community?

The references at the end of this chapter will give you many illustrations of community-centered schools.

TECHNIQUES FOR USING COMMUNITY RESOURCES

The community plays a vital role in modern teaching. As a student teacher, you will study and understand your teaching community, perhaps identify yourself with it by living there, participate in some of its organizations and activities, interpret it to your pupils, seek to improve it through common effort with others, and utilize it as a learning laboratory for the boys and girls you teach.

There are many methods by which you may use community resources in your teaching. In general, these methods may be classified as follows:

1. Taking pupils into the community for study: field trips, surveys, service projects, interviews, school camping.
2. Bringing community resources into the classroom for study: resource visitors, exhibits (individual and collected), bulletins.

These two general techniques do not always operate independently, since pupils frequently go into the community for study and bring back materials for further investigation in the school.

The rest of this chapter will give you specific suggestions for using community resources to vitalize and enrich your teaching.¹

EXTENDING THE CLASSROOM INTO THE COMMUNITY

Field Trips

Field trips are organized visits to the immediate or distant community taken by pupils and teachers to further the educa-



University Elementary School
University of Minnesota

Field trips enable children to learn at the scene of action.

tional purposes of the regular school curriculum. Trips or excursions planned primarily for pleasure, or trips involving athletic or music competition are not, technically, educational field

¹ *School and Community*, by Edward G. Olsen and others (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945), is the best comprehensive source of such suggestions. Much of the material that follows is based directly upon Olsen's book.

trips. Field trips have proved their educational value by providing pupils with direct first-hand experiences. They provide opportunities for pupil learning through the use of many techniques other than those of reading and speaking. All the senses aid learning on a field trip. You probably have learned through personal experience the truth that educational experimentation has demonstrated: an excursion is worth hundreds of pictures. A visit to a coal mine, for example, gives pupils facts, attitudes, and understandings that neither book nor motion picture can possibly duplicate. When properly planned, trips stimulate new interests and increase the appreciation of existing ones. They motivate pupils to study and examine familiar scenes and organizations for underlying causes and effects. Trips may bring pride in community accomplishments, or deep concern and social sensitivity for unsolved problems. They frequently motivate new hobbies, and sometimes have value in leading pupils to make general vocational exploration. Finally, when properly interpreted, field trips may further the development of good public relations in ways that mere verbalization can never approach.

Resources for Field Trips. Wesley and Adams make the following important recommendations:²

The teacher, or in large cities, the administration, should accumulate a file of places to be visited. Such a directory should give such data as (1) what is to be seen, (2) value and purpose, (3) time required, distance from school, and cost, (4) hours and days when such visits can be made, (5) the person to be contacted, (6) the class or age level for which the trip is designed, and (7) any special features or precautions.

The following suggested resources can be best studied by making field trips. No teacher should use all of them or even try to swell the number of such trips, but when the occasion requires, each of these resources has great potential value.

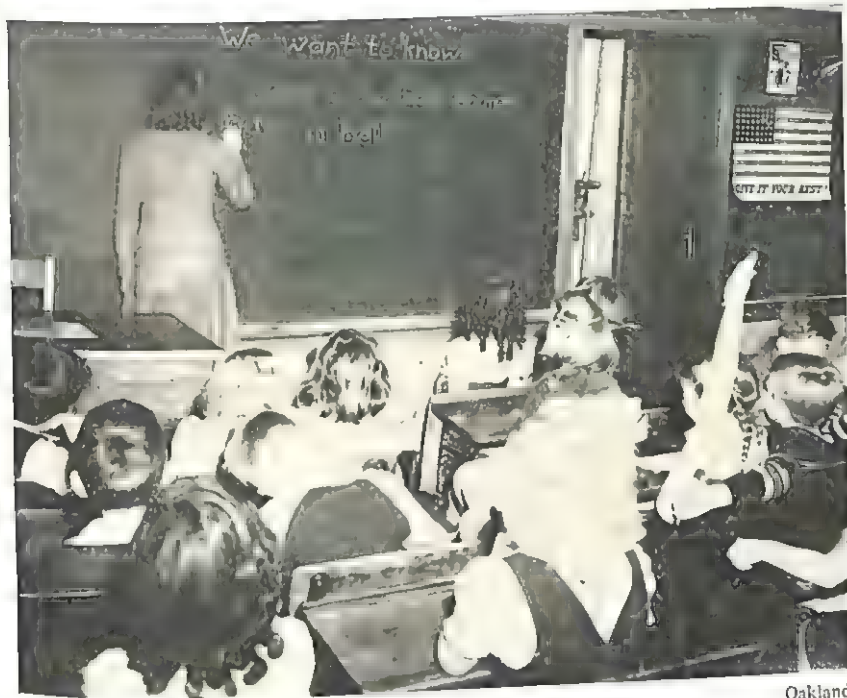
² Edgar Bruce Wesley, and Mary A. Adams. *Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools*, pp. 393-394. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1952.

Specimen Field Trips

Brickyard	Dairy
Packing plant	Chicken hatchery
Rubber factory	Farm
Candy factory	Apiary
Thermometer factory	Greenhouse
Hydroelectric plant	Museum
Canning factory	Art gallery
Cotton gin	Library
Mill	Voting polls
Tapestry weaving shop	Political meeting
Ice cream factory	Police station
Newspaper plant	Court
Bakery	Assessor's office
Photographer's studio	City water plant
Steel plant	Flower garden
Road under construction	Vegetable garden
Building under construction	Fair
Coffee company	Dog kennels
Automobile assembly plant	Livestock farm
Warehouse terminal	Grain elevator
Oil well	Interesting natural scenes
Historical society	Various types of houses
Church	Telephone exchange
Railway station	Broadcasting station
Freight yard	Theater
Wharf	Zoo
Airport	Planetarium
City hall	Park
Courthouse	Cemetery
Iron mine	Monument
Coal mine	Historical sites
Quarry	Post office
Bank	Fire department
Store	Business college
Hotel	High school
Summer resort	University

Planning the Field Trip. You will learn that the first and most essential aspect of a field trip, as in any other community-study technique, is careful advance planning. Too often, teachers start off on a trip without having discussed with pupils why they are going or how they are to proceed, and without having made arrangements for transportation or guidance at their destination. Such trips are usually failures in most of the educa-

tional aspects, and create misunderstanding and ill-will among pupils, teachers, administrators, and community representatives. If trips are not well planned, it is wiser to remain in the classroom.



Oakland

Have children help plan for the trip.

Field trips are used to develop pupil interest in units and problems, to gather pertinent information, and to serve as culminating activities. As a student teacher, you ordinarily will not be given full responsibility for planning a field trip. You should, however, help your supervising teacher in all phases of planning, and may assume primary responsibility for some details. The following are basic steps to be taken by the supervising teacher, yourself, and pupils in planning for any field trip or excursion:

1. *State and clarify the purposes of the field trip.* This is essential for guiding, planning, making arrangements, conducting the jour-

ney, and evaluating its results. You should take an active part in this step through leading pupil discussion. All pupils should clearly understand why they are going, where, and what they may expect to find. They need to see the relationship between the planned trip and their own problems and the on-going activities of the classroom. An example of such a statement of purpose for a sixth-grade class studying problems of soil conservation is: "To discover how the community attempts to aid farmers in maintaining good top soil."

2. *Make some general study of the problem under consideration.* Pupils should not attack a community problem "cold" through a trip; they need considerable background to secure maximum results from community study. In the problem stated above, for example, the pupils should have some general knowledge of soil content and use, as well as an understanding of progress made toward educating members of the community in soil conservation. Too much information should not be presented, however, since pupils may lose interest in the trip itself.

3. *Prepare questions to be answered by the trip.* Help your pupils to frame questions they want answered by their visit. Some are general questions to which all seek answers; others are more specialized and may be assigned to individual pupils or committees on an interest or experience basis. The following are examples of questions pertaining to the problem given above:

How deep is top soil?

What have residents done to maintain good top soil?

Where has wind and rain erosion caused damage?

Where can residents go for help when they need it?

4. *Make all arrangements essential for the success of the trip.* Help the supervising teacher plan carefully with the pupils for all the detailed arrangements. This is an excellent opportunity for teacher-pupil-parent cooperation. The following is a list of details, some of which will not pertain to certain kinds of excursions:

- (a) Obtain permission to visit the resource center. In some cases, this can be a valuable experience for pupils. You, the supervising teacher, a parent, or other community adult may make the initial contact. A telephone call, letter, or personal visit may be used.
- (b) You or the supervising teacher should explore the excursion itinerary beforehand. Go over the entire route and program

- of the trip to master completely the problems and plans for transportation, safety, guide services, time allotment, aspects of the resource center to be studied and visited, toilet facilities, and other related items of concern.
- (c) Invite interested parents and other community adults to help in planning, conducting, and evaluating the trip.
 - (d) Make all necessary arrangements with officials for transportation, speakers, guides, hosts, protection, and food. Plan carefully a time schedule with them, allowing time for pupils' questions. It is frequently helpful to check these final plans by a written note or telephone call one or two days before the trip.
 - (e) Make careful provision for financing the trip if expenses are involved. The school may provide its own buses for transportation, but arrangements must be made through the school principal or superintendent. Pupils frequently pay their fares if public transit is used. If a meal is involved, pupils may bring a lunch or arrange to eat in a restaurant.
 - (f) Decide upon proper clothing and equipment, such as notebooks, pencils, maps, cameras, and containers.
 - (g) Secure written permission of the parents of each pupil making the trip. This is absolutely essential, since a written slip properly signed is some protection for the teacher in case of accident. This step is usually accepted as partial evidence of "due reasonable care" on the part of the teacher. In any case, you as a student teacher are ordinarily not held liable in a damage-injury suit, since you are not a legally certificated, employed teacher. The following sample may help you:

The pupils in Grade Four, Webster School, would like to take a trip to the Dairy Maid Creamery Thursday, April 8, from 9:00 A.M. to 12 noon. We shall go by school bus, leaving the school at 8:55 A.M. and returning to the school at 12:00 noon. Mr. West, our principal, is also going with us.

If you wish _____ to go, please sign below.

Parent's signature _____

- (h) Complete a travel list, giving names of pupils taking the trip, destination, route, and schedule. A copy should be left in the principal's office.

- (i) Plan school activities for pupils who cannot take the trip. You and the pupils going on the excursion will need to make necessary arrangements with teachers whose work with the children will be affected.

Directing the Field Trip. When the time for the field trip comes, your supervising teacher may ask you to check again on several aspects of the planning in order to be sure that all details are in order. Failure to re-check some important item, such as parent-consent slip, travel list, or availability of transportation, may handicap if not destroy the value of a field trip.

It is imperative that good order be maintained while traveling to the resource center. If you are walking, your supervising teacher may want you to lead or to bring up the rear of the group. Pupil leaders may be chosen to assist in controlling smaller groups. You will have to exercise both tact and firmness in order to prevent excessive straggling among your pupils. They frequently find interesting by-paths to investigate en route. Anticipate these problems when you are making plans; encourage the children to discuss standards of conduct to be observed during the field trip. When pupils formulate their own standards, they are more disposed to abide by them.

Control problems that arise on school buses are different from those on public modes of transportation. In a school-owned or chartered bus, organized singing is often desirable. On a public vehicle, you may find it necessary to prevent pupils from disturbing other passengers. You and designated pupils may point out places of special interest along the highway. Care may be needed to control some pupils from attracting attention by shouting and indulging in other kinds of typical school-child behavior.

Notice that your supervising teacher keeps the excursion strictly on schedule; timing is all-important. When your group arrives at the place to be visited, either you or the supervising teacher should first enter to find the host, while the class waits quietly outside. Then the group is introduced to the host, who usually welcomes the children and gives them information and

instructions about visiting the center of interest. He may serve as guide, or he may introduce another who takes over the responsibility. Well-trained guides will group pupils for effective observation and listening, and will concentrate upon the pupils rather than upon the teacher. You must be constantly on your toes to see that pupils are attentive and aware of safety hazards. Scattering cannot be tolerated. During the visit, try to answer pupils' questions whenever possible, assist them in sketching and taking notes, gathering samples, talking appropriately with workers, and in other activities relevant to the purposes of the field trip.

Watch your travel schedule carefully, and help the supervising teacher lead the pupils from the resource center at the assigned time. The designated class spokesman should thank the host and guide as you leave. You and your supervising teacher will then escort *all pupils* back to the school for dismissal, being on constant guard that no one drops along the way. *You must under no circumstances dismiss the class at the resource center or en route.* You and the supervising teacher are responsible for the safe return of each pupil to the school building, and you must check the class roll before dismissal.

Evaluating the Field Trip. No well-planned field trip is successfully culminated until it has been carefully interpreted and evaluated. Certain values do result from planning and making the trip, but maximum learning comes when the trip is related to on-going classroom activities, previous experience, and especially to the purposes for which you planned the excursion.

Obviously, you should help the pupils interpret and evaluate the trip at the earliest possible moment, while their interest is still keen and while facts and appreciations are still fresh. The following suggestions will help you guide the class in evaluating the field trip:

1. Permit pupils to tell what experiences on the trip interested them most. Their answers may not be what you logically expect, but they will reveal psychological interest factors. Such an approach

is functional, and recognizes pupil interests and attitudes. For example, their first reactions may be to the "funny clothes" worn by the workers. Such things must be discussed and explained before more significant factors are considered.

2. Ask pupils what new facts they learned and what things they failed to learn in which they were interested.

3. Discuss the trip in terms of each of the purposes set up in advance.

4. Ascertain whether they found answers to all the questions they had formulated.

5. Discuss the behavior of the class frankly and critically.

6. Diagnose mistakes and difficulties encountered on the trip and indicate how more careful planning might have eliminated them.

7. Relate the findings of the excursion to the original problem or class unit that inspired it. You may wish to help the pupils summarize this information in written form.

8. Share your findings with other interested pupils, teachers, and classes. Pupils may write excursion stories for their school paper.

9. Assist pupils in assembling some of their excursion samples and specimens, such as maps, charts, posters, objects, realia, pictures, and products, for interesting classroom, corridor, and school-wide displays.

10. Plan further trips in light of findings, data, and problems resulting from this one.

11. Write letters of thanks and appreciation to all hosts, guides, speakers, parents, drivers, and others who made valuable contributions.

12. Plan how to make recommendations for any social action that the class feels warranted from what they learned on the trip.

13. Make a record of the salient features and findings of the trip for use in the future. You may wish to file a written appraisal of each trip for the guidance of future classes.

Service Projects

Service projects are activities in which pupils and teachers work together to improve some aspect of community living. Such projects are among the most significant activities of the

modern community school.³ Service projects may grow naturally from a need for social action resulting from a community problem within the pupils' scope, or they may grow out of field trips, or they may be planned independently.

Suggested Service Projects. Opportunities for conducting service projects in or near the school vary from school to school, and from community to community. The following suggestions represent studies that are within the experiences and understandings of elementary-school children. Note that each item presupposes a problem.

1. Campaign to prevent loss of shrubbery on schoolgrounds because children run through planted areas.
2. Project to bring cuttings and small shrubs to school for beautification of grounds.
3. Campaign to prevent littering of school grounds with paper and other refuse.
4. Study of social conditions in the school cafeteria, with purpose of improvement.
5. Study of lunch selection in the school cafeteria, with purpose of helping children to have balanced lunches.
6. Campaign to prevent school children from running across lawns and otherwise damaging private property near the school.
7. Project for improving conditions in the school corridors, with emphasis on safety.
8. Study of courtesy displayed in stores in the vicinity of the school, with purpose of raising standards of behavior in public places.

Planning the Service Project. These projects should be planned through cooperative discussion and exploration with pupils, parents, school administrators, and community leaders. These planning activities will give you many valuable experiences in working with different school and community groups in attacking common problems. The following are the major steps in planning a community-service project:

³ Edward G. Olsen, *School and Community Programs*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949.

1. Ascertain local social problems involving school children (lawn-crossing, rowdiness in stores, etc.)
2. Select the service project by setting up school and educational criteria: The project should be one
 - (a) Of importance to members of the group.
 - (b) Which children have a chance to carry through successfully.
 - (c) In which children may accept some responsibility for success or failure.
 - (d) Which will contribute to the total personality development of children.
 - (e) Which will actually improve community living.
3. State the purpose of the project clearly.
4. Secure the approval of your school principal. You, your supervising teacher, or a pupil committee must present your proposed project for administrative clearance.
5. Secure parental approval and permission. Each pupil must have this approval before leaving school.
6. Develop an understanding of the project problem. This can be done through reading, discussion, speakers, audio-visual aids, etc.
7. Secure the cooperation of community group leaders. Your project may interest many local organizations if you make the proper approach and win their confidence.
8. Organize the class into groups and committees on the basis of pupil interest, experience, and resources.

Carrying Out the Service Project. This phase grows naturally out of the planning of the project. It involves the following steps as the activity gets under way:

1. Check over-all class and committee plans and assignments before leaving school.
2. Follow the precautions outlined above (page 264) in transporting or walking with class to the project center.
3. Help each committee, in its initial work, to feel some success and to see the relationship of its contribution to the whole project. Pupils usually work well until the novelty wears off, or as long as they can see some use in their labor. If the project requires several weeks' work, you will have to see that there are frequent rewards and many words of encouragement.

4. Have each committee give progress reports to the class.
5. Revise committee and class plans as project moves ahead.
6. Shift committee members when necessary.
7. Keep written records of activities, accomplishments, and problems. Snapshots taken before, during, and after completion of a landscape improvement project, for example, will be extremely useful.
8. Attempt to involve other school classes in the on-going project.

Interpreting and Evaluating the Service-Project Experience. These projects are natural learning experiences for pupils, but their value can be increased by careful appraisal and interpretation in terms of the purposes for which they were undertaken. Evaluation, of course, should be an integral part of the planning and execution of the project. You will find the following steps helpful:

1. Review, periodically, the stated purposes of the project.
2. Appraise the planning of the project.
3. Appraise the execution of the project. Help pupils suggest ways of improving such projects in the future.
4. Summarize the outcomes in terms of changes in pupil behavior. Have pupils indicate what changes occurred in their attitudes, interests, habits, and skills.
5. Summarize the contribution of the project to the community. Frequently parents and other local leaders are in the best position to do this.
6. Consider the relationship of the project to the total work of the class and to the curriculum of the school.
7. Suggest similar service projects as future activities.

Interviews

Interviews are informal situations in which pupils ask questions of an adult for the purpose of securing authentic opinion or facts. An interview is ordinarily a question-and-answer process, held in the adult's home, office, or place of business when it is impractical for him to come to the school. Sometimes, too, it is more helpful to see the person in a working situation.

Planning the Interview. This technique requires careful planning, although it ordinarily involves only a few pupils. It is a procedure that will give you, the student teacher, an opportunity to work closely with individual pupils. The following steps are usually necessary in planning interviews:

1. Ascertain the purpose of the interview through class discussion.
2. Decide who should be interviewed and learn as much as possible about him.
3. Study the characteristics of a good interview. Reading, discussion, speakers, demonstrations, and movies will be helpful.
4. Plan specific questions to be asked. This is usually done by the entire class.
5. Appoint the interview committee: three or four members are usually adequate; one may be designated as chairman, one as secretary. Each member should have questions ready to ask.
6. Visit the person to be interviewed and plan details with him. You or your supervising teacher should make the first contact to tell the person to be interviewed the purposes of the project. The pupil chairman and one other committee member should then visit the interviewee personally, outline the objectives in some detail, give him a list of the prepared questions, and arrange a time for the complete interview.

Carrying Out the Interview. After making plans, the committee calls upon the person to be interviewed. Usually neither you nor your supervising teacher will accompany the pupils. The following steps have been suggested in carrying out the interview:⁴

1. Introduce yourselves.
2. State questions clearly.
3. Listen attentively.
4. Let the other person talk.
5. Ask questions on special points.
6. Take notes on hard points.
7. Don't waste time.
8. Express thanks when finished.

⁴ John C. Michaelis, *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*, p. 235. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950.

Evaluating and Interpreting the Interview. After the completion of the interview, you will assist the committee in evaluating and organizing its information.

1. Each pupil should be prepared to make a complete report of the interview from his brief notes.
2. The committee should review the interview and appraise its findings. The pupils should try to agree on the meaning, implications, and objectiveness of this information. They should point out any obvious bias they found on the part of the person interviewed, his degree of experience, and his attitude toward them, the school, and the problem under consideration. They should decide whether to seek further information on their problem.
3. The committee should write a complete summary report of its findings. This should be filed for possible use in future work.

Reporting the Interview to the Class. After you have assisted the interview committee in evaluating its work, you should help them prepare their oral report to the class. Each pupil should plan to make a contribution.

1. The chairman should preside, state the interview problem, and lead the discussion.
2. The complete interview information should be presented by committee members, and then interpreted and evaluated.
3. Questions and statements should be encouraged from the class.
4. Assist the class in making a generalization from the interview data.
5. Relate the generalization to the present class unit and activity.
6. Plan future interviews.

School Camping

Camping is one of the finest of the organized school experiences for bringing pupils into direct contact with their natural environment through outdoor living. Camping promotes democratic living, good health, conservation of natural resources, recreation and hobbies, and service to the community. Consequently, school camping can make a significant contribution to modern education.

During your student teaching, however, you may have little if any contact with organized school camping as a curricular activity. There are two reasons for this. First, only a very small percentage of schools today maintain and operate regular school-camping programs. There is little chance, therefore, that your student teaching will be done in a school that has a camping program in operation. The number of schools with regular camping programs is slowly increasing, but problems of administration, cost, supervision, and maintenance are serious handicaps. Although a few schools are making progress in providing camping as an integral part of their curriculum, others have been hampered by legal prohibitions on the payment of teachers' salaries for camping supervision. There is a definite trend toward providing day-camping experiences, as well as a program of cooperation with civic and service groups in the community to provide summer camping experiences for school children.

A second factor limiting your opportunity to participate in school camping is that so much of its planning involves administrative responsibilities. If you are fortunate enough to work in a school with a camping program, however, your supervising teacher will undoubtedly be able to provide you some opportunity to observe its planning and to participate in this vital educational experience with young people.³

BRINGING COMMUNITY RESOURCES INTO THE SCHOOL AND CLASSROOM

Resource Visitors

Resource visitors are people with special abilities or experiences who are invited to the school to show their accomplishments or to interpret their experiences to pupils. The term is not ordinarily applied to guests who primarily offer entertainment to the children. Resource visitors may be used for general school-wide assemblies, for two or more classes with common

³ See Olsen, *op. cit.*, Chapter XI, for an excellent description of school camping policies and programs.

interests, or for a single class group. As a student teacher, you may not know individuals to be invited, but you will frequently find that the pupils and teachers can suggest competent persons. Do not overlook members of the school faculty as speakers. Some schools keep records of the past performance of resource visitors. Among those commonly used in schools today are traffic patrol officers, civic leaders, health officials, conservation officials, editors, ministers, librarians, social workers, skilled craftsmen, businessmen, scientists, armed forces representatives, farmers, and world travelers.

Planning for the Resource Visitor. You will find the following suggestions helpful in preparing for the visitor:

1. Ascertain the purpose for inviting a resource visitor. Do not bring in an "outsider" just for the sake of the activity. Be sure he can make a contribution you can get in no other way. Discuss the purposes carefully with your pupils.
2. Decide whom to invite and what his contribution should be.
3. Decide on the nature of the visitor's contribution: a talk, demonstration, exhibit, presentation of documentary materials.
4. Invite the speaker and give him information regarding the class: its size, age of pupils, interests, unit of study, previous topics studied, date, time, and place of meeting.
5. Make careful plans for meeting, greeting, and entertaining the visitor.
6. Arrange for all necessary equipment, such as projectors, maps, and tables.
7. Select a chairman and secretary.
8. Check all plans and arrangements a few days before the visit.

Using and Interpreting the Resource Visitor. When the visitor arrives, he is greeted and welcomed by a pupil committee, made comfortable, and shown the room in which he will speak. The chairman secures the necessary information for his introduction and presents the visitor to the class or group. The guest should be shown the utmost courtesy during his visit in appreciation of his services; good public relations result from such consideration. After the visit, a class committee or individual

pupil should write a letter of thanks to the visitor expressing the appreciation of the class and school.

Through discussion and group thinking, the class then proceeds to summarize the visitor's major contributions for future use. The experience should also be discussed and evaluated in terms of the purposes sought. Attention should be given to class planning, the effectiveness of the visitor, and the quality of pupil participation. Evaluation of the speaker must be kept constructive and impersonal.

This is also the time to make plans for any follow-up activities within the school and community. Resource visitors frequently stimulate and challenge pupils to undertake some of the community-study programs suggested above.

*Bringing Products, Specimens, Collections, and
Exhibits into the Classroom*

In many of the techniques described above for taking pupils into the community for study, participation, and service, opportunities arise for gathering samples of materials and products to take back into the school for more careful study and analysis. In the classroom, your pupils may discuss the items collected. A teacher, pupil, or parent may have special knowledge, experience, or skill that will assist the class in its study and analysis.

A second common method of collecting community resources for classroom study is to have pupils bring in specimens of the physical environment. From the schoolyard itself, they may gather leaves, grasses, flowers and weeds, rocks, soil, and insects. From the pupils' homes may come fruits, vegetables, pets, larger animals, shrubs and flowers, minerals, and various kinds of ore.

A third source of vital learning materials lies in collections made by pupils and their parents. It will be revealing to you as a student teacher to visit many different elementary classrooms and see the great variety of materials and collections that young children bring to school. As pupils grow older, some become less willing to show their collections publicly, although many will cooperate. Collections may be of different kinds of

wood, glass, metal, plastics, textiles, clothing, dolls, china, stamps, recordings, photographs, or programs. Collections assembled by parents are often valuable in illustrating occupations, hobbies, craft skills, customs and traditions, and changing technical developments. Since any collection borrowed from parents or other school patrons has both a real and a sentimental value



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to its owner, and often represents years of diligent effort, you should be duly appreciative of the opportunity for using it. Since pupils often take such things for granted and become careless in using them, you are obligated to see that necessary precautions are taken to safeguard the receipt, handling, exhibiting, and re-packing of all borrowed collections. It is often helpful in this respect to have either the owners or their children interpret to the class the difficulties involved in collecting, classifying, and preserving valuable materials. If you are a collector yourself, you will appreciate the need for care in handling collections in the classroom. This awareness is a habit all good teachers develop.

Setting Up Classroom Exhibits

You may have seen exhibits on display that you could not understand or that had very little meaning to you. Perhaps the items were not well labeled and in themselves were not sufficiently self-explanatory. Perhaps the purpose of the total exhibit was not well identified. One of the chief difficulties arises from the necessary absence of the *process* in exhibits of products. For example, a straight exhibit of cloth has little meaning for pupils who are attempting to understand how cloth is made. However, the exhibit takes on meaning when it attempts to show the stages from raw wool to a woven rug. No matter how crude the process used, pupils can see the stages followed—washing, carding, spinning, dyeing, and weaving. Through this experience they develop a better understanding of the necessity for and nature of each process.

In planning exhibits with pupils, you will want to help them locate materials that really give meaning. The more responsibility your pupils have for the planning, the more likely they are to set up exhibits that are meaningful. You can easily determine the extent of pupil understanding of any exhibit by asking for explanations. Plan to include pupil participation in all activities involving exhibits.

In the use of classroom exhibits, as in the use of all learning resources, you will first predict or estimate the potentialities of the exhibit for learning. Second, you will attempt to ascertain the actual contribution that the exhibit makes to learning. The pupils should also participate directly in the prediction of contribution and in the evaluation of contribution. For example, a group of pupils and their student teacher prepared an exhibit on pioneer tools during their study of the unit, "How has specialization in labor affected our way of living?" The tools were well organized according to use—for instance, the cabinet-making tools and the shoe-making and repair tools were each in a separate group and well identified. When asked how valuable they thought the pioneer tool exhibit to be, the pupils made the

following observations: "They were interesting to see." "I'd seen some of them before but some I hadn't seen." "How could they ever make such beautiful furniture with such crude tools?" "I wish we could really have seen how they worked." "Why couldn't we compare the way they work with the way our tools today work?" "They were fun to see but we didn't learn much about them because we didn't try working with them. We should have tried to make something with them."

In this situation the student teacher overlooked the fact that most of the potential learning was in *using* the tools and in *comparing* pioneer tools with modern tools.

It is impossible for a school to keep on hand all the concrete materials that may be needed to make concepts meaningful, to teach pupils to observe, and to teach pupils to see relationships. Many have to be borrowed from teachers, pupils, parents, businesses, or even individuals, organizations, and firms out of town. Pupils can learn much about caring for other people's property by assuming responsibility for it. Each item must be correctly labeled and identified with the donor's name, and each item must be returned without damage. Pupils can also learn much about packing, postage rates, and proper forms of acknowledgment in this activity.

Here are several summary points that will help you in the use of classroom exhibits: (1) the pupils should help plan the exhibit, (2) the pupils should help evaluate the exhibit, (3) pupils' observation of items in an exhibit must be directed, (4) the exhibit should be used in study and discussion, (5) the items in the exhibit should be used in the way in which they will contribute most to learning, and (6) borrowed items must be returned in the same condition as received.

SHARING COMMUNITY EXPERIENCES IN THE SCHOOL

In connection with many of the activities described in this chapter, we have made suggestions that will enable your class to share some of its community experiences with other groups

in the school. The information and data secured on a field trip, survey, or interview may easily be shared with other classes studying similar problems by means of either oral or written communication. In chapter 11 you will find many suggestions for constructing a variety of visual aids that will help your pupils tell their community story to their classmates throughout the school.



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Sharing can also be done through art media.

Many of the experiences in studying the local community will provide interesting materials for school-wide assembly programs. Of course, a good resource speaker, even though he has been discovered by a particular class, can be shared with the whole school. If such a speaker has worked with a particular grade at some earlier time, that group often has the responsibility of planning the program, presiding over the assembly, and serving as hosts.

The results of community study may be shared with interested

parents and other community adults, as well as with other groups within the school. Parents and other visitors may come when the class is summarizing, organizing, interpreting, or evaluating its data. Visual aids and exhibits are almost indispensable in sharing community experiences with adults. Usually only a few parents attend, but an intensive, well-publicized project carried out over several weeks often brings a large number of visitors. An excellent example is presented in the film *Near Home*, which describes the results of a comprehensive community study.

Many modern elementary schools have developed carefully devised sharing techniques. From the kindergarten upward, youngsters like the opportunity to share their experiences, pleasures, and appreciations with other class groups, particularly their dramatized stories, original stories, creative dramatics, rhythms, and folk dances. When a third-grade class, for example, enjoys reading a story about Daniel Boone, the members often ask to dramatize it in their room for the first and second grades. An intermediate grade (fourth, fifth, or sixth) might share its folk dancing, singing, scientific experiments, or social-studies reports.

Summary

This chapter has dealt with the important topic of understanding and using the local community to enrich your teaching and to make it more functional. With knowledge and skill, you can make the community a dynamic learning laboratory for your pupils. If possible, you should live in the local school community during your student teaching, and participate in its manifold activities. You will find a wide variety of valuable leadership opportunities with children in the character-building and service agencies, clubs, and associations of the community.

A community-centered school uses its total facilities to educate and serve the community, renders cooperative services with other community agencies, centers its curriculum around persistent local problems and resources, and gives leadership in

coordinating the total educational resources of the community.

The various methods of studying and using community resources can be classified under two general techniques. The first is taking your pupils into the community for learning experiences through *field trips, service projects, interviews, and camping*. The second involves activities that bring community resources into the classroom for study, such as *resource visitors, physical objects, specimens, displays, and collections*. You will need to study and investigate a particular community resource before you attempt to use it as a learning experience for your pupils. Discuss any proposed project carefully with your supervising teacher and your college supervisor, and secure the necessary administrative approval.

All community-study techniques involve three basic activities: (1) planning, defining, and stating the problem and its purposes; (2) carrying out or administering the project; and (3) interpreting and evaluating the learning experiences in terms of the stated goals or purposes. There should be a large amount of teacher-pupil planning, pupil participation, and pupil responsibility in each of these three phases of community study.

Many community-study projects result in a sharing of learning experiences with other classes, grades, the entire school, parents, and other interested patrons. Audio-visual aids help to dramatize and emphasize these projects. Classroom, corridor, and assembly exhibits are helpful. Informal classroom sharing, as well as prepared school and community-wide assemblies prove stimulating and valuable.

As a student teacher in a modern school, you will find that community study, participation, and service enable pupils to understand, adjust to, interpret, and improve contemporary society.

Bear in mind that there are many other instructional resources that should be utilized. The next chapter directs attention to the audio-visual materials that are used most frequently in the elementary school.

Suggestions for Further Reading

- Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. *Organizing the Elementary School for Living and Learning*, 1947 Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1947. Chapter III presents an excellent treatment of many aspects of school and community relationships, including guides for service planning, projects, coordinating, and councils. Descriptions of a number of outstanding programs.
- Collings, Miller R., "Exploring Your Community: A Direct Experience Study." *Journal of Educational Research*, 44:225-230, November, 1950. A Detroit Public Schools project whose purpose was to determine the amount of direct experience with the community the pupils were having. The findings are arresting to those who have assumed pupil participation beyond the narrow circles of family interest.
- Department of Elementary School Principals. *Community Living and the Elementary School*, Twenty-fourth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1945. Broad and inclusive coverage of community resources, with descriptive examples.
- Michaelis, John U., *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950. Chapter IX discusses principles, techniques, and services of the community in relationship to the elementary school.
- Moffatt, Maurice P., and Hazel W. Howell, *Elementary Social Studies Instruction*. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1952. Chapter XIII provides assistance for teachers on relations among children, school, parents, and community resources; implications of community study; characteristics of the community school.
- Olsen, Edward G., et al., *School and Community*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945. A comprehensive treatment of all aspects of school and community relations. A chapter is devoted to each community-study technique.
- Quillen, I. James, and Lavone A. Hanna, *Education for Social Competence*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1948. Chapter XI contains inspirational and helpful statements of principles, practices, and services.
- Wesley, Edgar Bruce, and Mary A. Adams, *Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1952. Chapter XXII presents techniques for community study, with illustrations of good programs. Comprehensive lists of possible resources and places to visit on field trips. Many helps for exercising good judgment in the use of community resources.

10

Using Audio-visual Materials

THE PURPOSE of this chapter is to provide specific, practical suggestions on audio-visual materials that you can use during your student teaching. Little attention is given to the values of audio-visual materials or the many reasons why they should be used. At this point in your program, emphasis should be given to specific principles and techniques that you can use to improve your teaching. If you need general background information, you are urged to consult one of the references listed at the end of the chapter.

As you make plans with your supervising teacher and college supervisor, be sure to clarify the special problems involved in using the specific techniques and materials discussed in this chapter. Your planning will be conditioned by the resources available in the school where you are doing your student teaching. Hence, view this section as a concise summary of specific points to keep in mind as you utilize available audio-visual resources. You will find it a handy reference for double-checking key points immediately prior to the selection and use of a given resource.

BASIC PRINCIPLES

Study Each Selected Resource Before Utilization To Determine the Specific Contributions It Can Make. What information, skills, concepts, appreciations, or attitudes can be developed? What purposes can be achieved? Questions such as these can be answered by previewing or pre-auditing records, pictures, and

other resources. Note effective ways to introduce the resource. Also note specific points and questions to emphasize in class, and list possible follow-up activities.

Check the Teacher's Guide. Prior to utilization, be sure to study the teacher's guide that accompanies well-prepared filmstrips, motion pictures, and recordings. Information typically



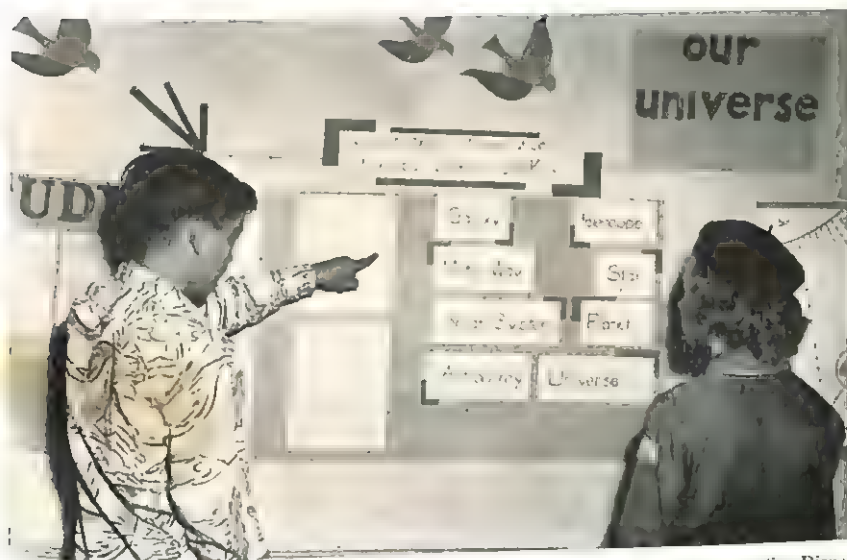
Use resources appropriate to specific purposes.

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presented in the guide includes suggestions and comments on specific objectives, concepts and vocabulary, questions for discussion, pupil activities, and the general significance of the material. Note the suggestions that are pertinent to the work of your group and incorporate them into your teaching plans.

Make Specific Plans. After you have previewed the resource and have checked the teacher's guide, make careful plans for utilization of the materials in a particular class. Your purpose

may be to introduce a unit, to stimulate interest, to summarize a topic, to present information, to improve attitudes, or to teach a skill. Make sure that you understand the possible outcomes, in terms of interests, understandings, appreciations, attitudes, information, or skills. Introductory comments or questions must be consistent with purposes. And each pupil must be informed of the purposes for utilizing the resource. Present careful direc-



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Plan for specific uses of materials.

tions that make clear what learning activities the pupils are to undertake as the material is used. Should they take notes? Should they listen in terms of specific purposes? Should they be prepared to summarize major points? You will also want to plan meaningful follow-up activities. These usually include discussion, answering specific questions that were raised beforehand, consideration of questions raised by the pupils, and specific activities whereby the information is applied. Finally, you will need plans for evaluating the effectiveness of the resource. Should you use a test, directed observation, group discussion, or some other

means of appraisal? In summary, then, your plans will include purpose, introduction, utilization, follow-up, and evaluation.

Check Equipment Before Utilization with the Class. Projectors, record players, and other items of equipment should be checked carefully prior to utilization. It is wasteful of pupils' time and embarrassing to you to begin a lesson and then discover that the machine will not operate. The best procedure is to set up the machine and operate it prior to utilization, being sure to follow the directions given in the manual and to check specific items. For example, in preparing to use a sound motion picture projector, you will want to check the following points. Similar checks should be applied to other types of equipment.

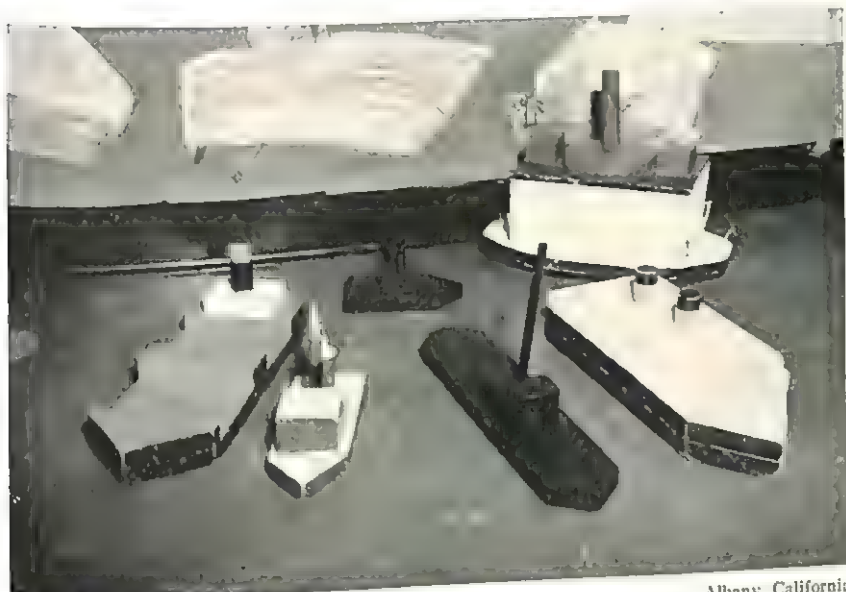
- | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| —Adjustment of lenses | —Placement of projector |
| —Cleanliness of lenses | —Placement of speaker |
| —Length of cord | —Placement of cord |
| —Condition of plugs | —Condition of film |
| —Condition of switches | —Threading the film |
| —Power outlets | —Tone control |
| —Distance to screen | —Volume of speaker |

Check Classroom Arrangements. Adequate classroom arrangements are essential to the effective utilization of audio-visual materials. Give attention to such factors as darkening the room, ventilation, acoustics, placement of screen and speaker, and seating of the group. Children nearest the screen should not be at a viewing angle in excess of 30° . The angle should not be greater than 25° when the viewing screen is made of beaded glass. No child should sit closer to the screen than twice the width of the projected image.

CLASSROOM UTILIZATION

After you have made your plans and have checked the equipment and classroom arrangements, you must take steps to utilize the material in the classroom according to plan. The basic steps involved in effective classroom procedures follow.

Clarify Purposes. Develop clear purposes in the minds of the pupils for using each resource. Every pupil should know how the material is related to topics being studied, specific questions that will be answered, and what should be noted as the resource is utilized. Purposes can be clarified through group discussion, comments on the relationship of the resource to classwork, list-



Albany, California

Manipulative materials are needed by the young child in purposeful activities such as dramatic play.

ing questions on the board, or noting topics to be covered as the resource is used.

Each pupil can achieve specific purposes only if he knows what he is to do as the resource is utilized. Clear discussion should clarify the role of pupils, so that active participation will be secured and passive sitting by "to see a show" will be avoided. This can be accomplished by suggestions that pupils take notes, list questions or comments, make mental notes of ideas to use in discussion, or note information to use in follow-up activities.

Use the Resource. After each pupil clearly understands the purposes and knows just what to do, utilize the resource according to plan. During presentation, observe any expressions indicative of misconceptions, concerns, and interests, or other evidences of pupil reaction.

Give adequate attention to the operation of the equipment, so that mechanical difficulties will not arise. For example, points for the operator to keep in mind as a sound motion picture projector is being used are:

1. Follow manual directions for the operation of the machine.
2. Stay near the machine; keep tone, volume, framing, and focus in adjustment.
3. Check the film frequently to see that it is winding properly and not being damaged in any way.
4. Stop the machine if the take-up reel fails to work, if the film "jumps off" the sprocket, if the sound is not clear, or if the screen image flutters. Correct the threading of the film before proceeding.

Plan Follow-up Utilization. Have the pupils follow up the utilization of a given resource by putting to use the ideas they have gained from it. Information applied to significant activities is remembered much longer than information not put to use. Illustrative follow-up activities are group discussion, answering specific questions, applying information in making murals or drawing pictures, completing outlines and reports, using ideas in dramatizations or demonstrations, and checking the data presented to determine authenticity. In some instances, the follow-up may be a critical appraisal of ideas presented in the resource to determine if other sources must be used to secure additional information on particular questions. Critical thinking can be sharpened if follow-up activities of this type are carried out.

Evaluate Outcomes. Evaluation of the use of a given resource should be made both from the teacher's and the pupils' point of view. Questions that you, as the teacher, may consider are: Were the stated purposes achieved? Were specific questions answered? Were attitudes or appreciations improved? From the pupils'

point of view, attention may be given to: What specific points were clarified? Did we secure answers to our questions? Are there additional problems? Are there other resources that do not



Glencoe Public Schools

An excellent follow-up activity is the making of graphic materials.

agree with this particular one? What additional information is needed? Evaluation may be carried out by means of group discussion, a short quiz, or careful observation of pupils as they apply the ideas secured from the particular resource that was utilized.

UTILIZATION OF TYPES OF RESOURCES

Try to keep the foregoing suggestions in mind as you use various resources. Each principle is essential to effective utilization and applies to the different resources discussed below. In addition, several special points apply to each type of resource. These are presented next in concise, summary form so that you can use them to check yourself on specific techniques. Remember that checking prior to utilization will improve your teaching and will help you to avoid making mistakes.

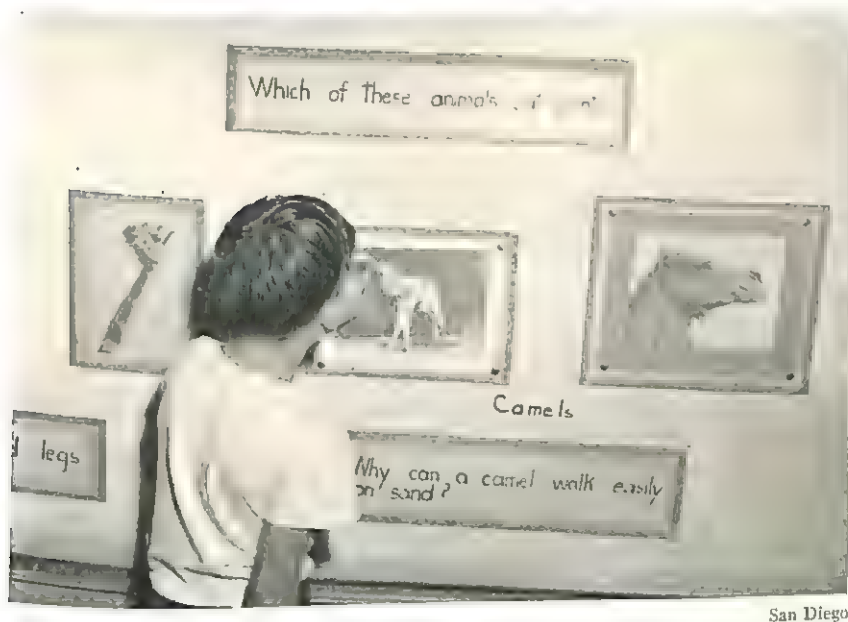
Bulletin Boards

Types and Uses. Bulletin boards are an important part of the classroom environment; they should be functional as well as directive. The variety of purposes for which bulletin boards are used include: art appreciation; stimulation of interest in, and questions about, units of work; display of information about special events and holidays; posting of current announcements and schedules; and display of charts, graphs, pictures, posters, maps, photographs, pupil work, and clippings.

Purposeful planning should be reflected in bulletin-board displays. In one section of the room, you may want to provide pinning space for use as a "beauty corner" where flower arrangements, children's work, and other materials may be enjoyed by all. You may use another bulletin-board area for displays of an instructional nature, with questions for use in guiding individual and group study, labels under pictures for vocabulary development, or directions for carrying out a process. Other examples of instructional displays are charts that show steps in multiplying or dividing, photographs that illustrate the food, clothing, and shelter of particular groups, and arrangements of pictures that show the seven basic foods.

Many bulletin-board arrangements develop as a unit of work develops. For example, murals and pictures by children who are studying the westward movement may depict modes of transportation, terrain, clothing, life about the campfire, and the

hardships encountered on the trek westward. Or a series of pictures may show the early development of railways, hunting and trapping, the Pony Express, or similar topics. Another example involves the use of a large map on which pupils make entries as they collect information. The map becomes more detailed as the unit progresses.



San Diego

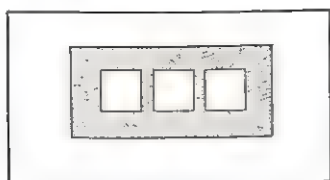
Bulletin boards stimulate thinking and raise questions.

Many teachers use the bulletin board systematically for displays of children's reports and papers as they are completed in different subjects. However, these displays should never be used exclusively to show the "best work." Opportunities should be available to all pupils to have their work displayed. Some teachers employ various headings related to pupils' work, such as "We Are Improving," or "Steady Progress." Thus attention is given to reasonable standards and expectancies for children of varying levels of ability, and recognition is given to the individual growth of each child.

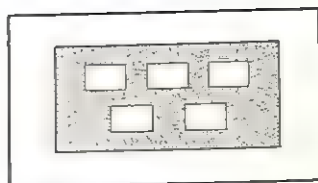
Two other needs are met in part through the use of bulletin boards. Decorations for special days and events should reflect planning and creativity by the children; commercial material should not be used exclusively. Finally, some space is needed for announcements and directions related to playground utilization, duties of monitors, lost-and-found notices, and similar items.

General Principles. General guide-lines that apply to the arrangement of bulletin boards are:

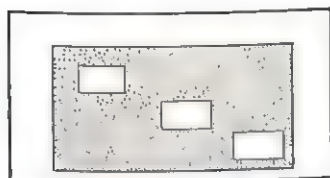
1. Select material that is interesting, timely, and comprehensible to pupils.
2. Change the material as topics, interests, questions, problems, and purposes change; keep the material up to date.
3. Secure the active help of pupils in arranging the bulletin board and in keeping it neat, interesting, and up to date.
4. Remember that bulletin boards are a part of the classroom and should be arranged to tie in with the classroom environment in an effective and artistic manner.
5. Avoid cluttered bulletin boards that result from mixing too many types of materials together, such as maps and charts arranged with posters and pictures. Professional work, such as posters, are best when they stand out alone, or when related children's work is arranged around them. Maps are effective, too, with children's work arranged around them.
6. Keep left-to-right direction of eye movement in mind as you arrange materials. When the height of the display is greater than can be seen in one glance, use two or more rows, each arranged for left-to-right movement of the eyes. However, in row arrangements be sure to direct the eye movement toward the center of the display by appropriate use of line, size, and color.
7. Unity of line should be evident in a display so that the eyes will be directed in a definite sequence over the subject matter. This can be achieved by devising a logical sequence in the arrangement of the subject matter. Work out an imaginary "rest line" running straight across the display either at the top or the bottom of the mountings, and parallel to the horizontal lines of the mountings. Or make the space between mountings narrower than the picture or subject matter itself.



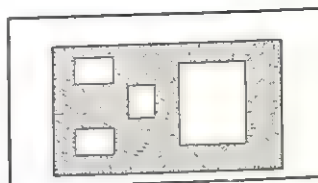
A. Good. The "rest line" is apparent and the mat space between the pictures is less than the space surrounding the pictures.



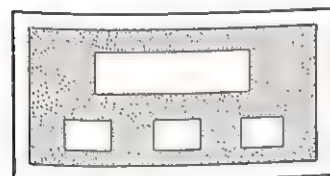
B. Good. Two "rest lines" are used and the display is centered on the mat.



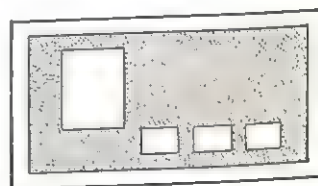
C. Poor. Lacks balance and unity. Small lower border makes mounting top-heavy. Could be improved by using arrangements in (A) and (B).



D. Poor. Top-heavy mounting, two centers of interest. Lacks unity of arrangement. Could be improved by using arrangements in (E) and (F).



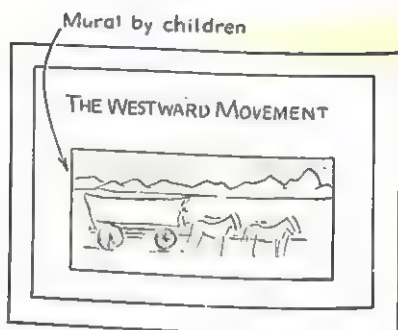
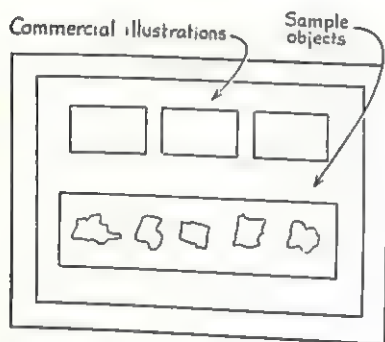
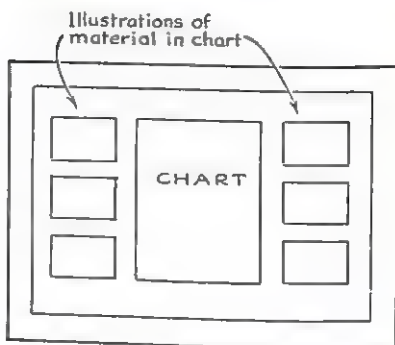
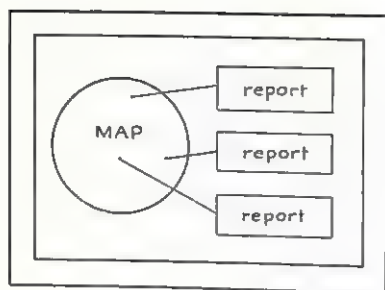
E. Good. Has unity of arrangement and balance.



F. Good. Is not top-heavy and has unity.

BULLETIN-BOARD ARRANGEMENTS

8. You can use various geometric designs and shapes in arranging bulletin-board displays if you are careful to maintain balance, and if your arrangement directs the eyes in the desired sequence. You can achieve proper sequence by means of continuity of subject matter, rest line, color, or all three. The illustrative arrangements above are suggestive of types used in many classrooms.



Suggestions for developing sequence and unity through arrangement in mounted displays.

Mounting Materials. Several principles related to the mounting of materials are helpful in arranging bulletin-board displays. A given display should have unity of color as well as unity of subject matter. Colored mats should carry out the color scheme of the room, thus insuring harmony throughout the total classroom environment. Mats or borders used for mounting should be selected to enhance the subject matter being displayed. You might adjust the area of color in the mounting to the area of the subject matter, or you might use colors and tones in the mounting that bring out the colors and tones that you wish to emphasize in the material being displayed. Within the display, select mats and borders that are alike in color and form. Here are some specific suggestions:

1. Select mat to set off the colors in the picture or material; use mats of a dull tone with bright materials and mats of a bright tone with dull materials; avoid mats whose color intensity is equal to that of the material.

2. Avoid using a mat color that is a direct complement of the color in the picture; rather, use an analogous color. For example, a picture with large areas of bright orange is more attractive when placed on a light-yellow or blue mat; it should not be placed on a large area of bright blue.

3. The size of the mat is governed by the importance of the object or picture; the larger the mat, the more the picture is emphasized.

4. Avoid putting strong lights against deep or heavy darks, and heavy darks against lights. For example, do not mount a pastel water color on a deep-magenta background.

Chalkboard

Use the chalkboard to present original material, to list points for discussion, to present material that otherwise would have to be dictated, to record dates, to write announcements, to present new information such as terms, principles, and dates, to illustrate points by means of sketches, charts, graphs, and diagrams, to make assignments, to give directions, to list standards, to enable pupils to do written work so that others may see it, and to list examination items.

Keep the following guide-lines in mind as you use the chalkboard:

1. Place the material so that all pupils can see it.
2. Write legibly and be sure that there are no misspelled words.
3. Do not obstruct the group's view when making illustrations or giving a demonstration.
4. Check lighting to avoid glare and eyestrain.
5. Organize the material so that it is easy to read.
6. Be sure that the chalkboard and chalk trays are kept clean.
7. Use colored chalk, stick figures, rulers, compasses, and stencils to improve effectiveness of presentation. Practice beforehand if necessary.

8. Check material on the chalkboard from the back of the room, to make sure that it is easy to read.
9. Use a duplicating machine when long lists are involved, or when materials must be in the possession of the pupils and time can be saved from doing mere copywork.

Duplicated Materials

In order to save time and avoid copywork, use duplicated materials for test items, practice material, job sheets, notices, and similar information. Stencil and gelatin duplicators are the most commonly used. In planning and preparing duplicated materials, give attention to the following:

1. Duplicate material that all pupils should have in their own possession.
2. Be sure it is legible and easy to read.
3. Provide only those materials that are essential.
4. Avoid the use of duplicated materials simply to provide "busy work."

Motion Pictures

Motion pictures give a reality to studies of people, processes, and faraway places that can be secured in no other way, except by first-hand observation. Since action and movement are portrayed, the children gain insights and meanings that still pictures do not offer. A broad sweep of events or activities can be presented, such as the growth of organizations, the development of nations, contributions of great men and women, or processes involved in the production of a given commodity. In addition, motion pictures are interesting to pupils, hold their attention, and exert a great impact on their appreciations and attitudes. Here are some guides to effective use of motion pictures:

1. Select motion pictures that will develop concepts, attitudes, or appreciations of current significance to the group.
2. Study the guide that accompanies the motion picture for key points that others have found significant.

3. Determine specific ideas and concepts that need clarification or specific comment.
4. Note size, space, and time distortions, or any other parts of the film that may give wrong impressions.
5. Encourage the learning of a few significant ideas; avoid over-emphasis on a large number of isolated specifics.
6. Evaluate the motion picture after utilization to determine if purposes were achieved.
7. Plan specific follow-up activities, so that the pupils can apply key learnings.



Arrange for individual viewing of materials that provide a three-dimensional effect.

Projected Still Pictures

Among the projected still pictures frequently used in elementary schools are slides, filmstrips, opaque projections, overhead projections, and positive transparencies. Projected pictures are valuable aids to instruction. They insure group participation by focusing attention upon a particular picture; they make it possible for small pictures to be used with a large group; they add variety to the classroom routine; and they make it possible for

specific points to be considered for as long as efficient learning requires.

Slides. Slides are frequently used in teaching because they can easily be arranged in a desired sequence, are easy to make, and are available on a variety of topics. Points to be kept in mind in using them are:

1. Select each slide in terms of purposes, questions, or problems in your class.
2. Make notes regarding special points or comments required by each slide; 3 x 5 cards are helpful.
3. Arrange slides in an appropriate sequence for showing.
4. Introduce the activity by clarifying purposes.
5. Present each slide with related comments; answer questions that arise. Because of the heat created by the projector, allow no more than 2 to 3 minutes for cardboard-mounted slides and 5 or 6 minutes for glass-mounted slides.
6. Use a pointer to call attention to specific items; avoid presenting too many specifics, lest confusion develop.
7. Apply the learning to questions, problems, or purposes raised before or during the presentation.
8. Evaluate the learning and note any confusions or misconceptions on the part of pupils; re-show slides to clear up special points; note needs for additional information and for use of related resources.

Opaque Projections. Pictures, cartoons, maps, drawings, songs, and similar resources from pamphlets, books, magazines, and newspapers constitute the raw materials for opaque projections. The same guide-lines presented above for the use of slides apply to opaque projections. The next chapter presents several tips on mounting materials that will save time and prevent difficulties from arising in utilizing, filing, and storing opaque projections.

Filmstrips. Filmstrips are one of the most frequently used audio-visual resources. Two types are available in color or black-and-white: (a) filmstrips with accompanying texts, and (b) filmstrips with synchronized recordings. Effective utilization requires the following precautions:

1. Preview the filmstrip and consult the accompanying teacher's manual; note purposes, major concepts, outcomes, and specific teaching suggestions.
2. Develop specific purposes and questions with the class before showing.
3. Show the filmstrip (or that portion selected for use).
4. Apply the ideas gained from the filmstrip by answering questions, listing key points, or holding a group discussion.
5. Evaluate achievement of purposes and discuss new questions that have arisen.

Some mechanical errors frequently made by teachers in using filmstrips are:

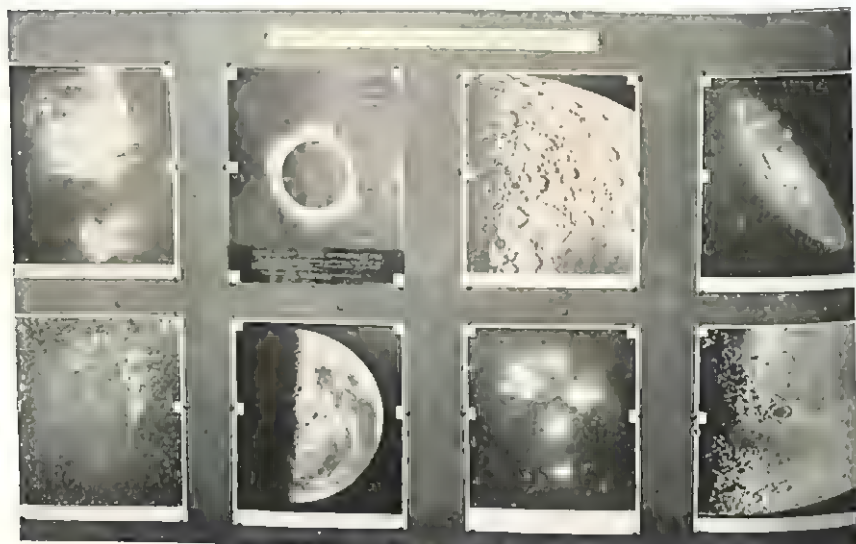
1. Failure to check beforehand to see if the filmstrip has been re-wound.
2. Touching the surface of the filmstrip instead of handling it by the edges only.
3. Failure to engage the sprocket teeth properly, thus damaging the film.
4. Forgetting to adjust the framing of the pictures.

Pictures

Use pictures to present specific concepts, to create interest, to explain difficult points, to provide specific answers to questions, and to stimulate additional study on a particular topic. In selecting pictures, be sure to check them carefully for specific applications to the work underway, the ideas involved, misconceptions they may create, emotional reactions they may stimulate, and their relevancy to other materials being used. In using pictures, give attention to the suggestions:

1. Use pictures as teaching aids to achieve specific purposes.
2. Present only a few at a time, and relate them to specific topics or questions in the work underway.
3. Avoid using small pictures with the entire class, and pictures with an overabundance of confusing detail. Clarify misrepresentations in pictures, being sure to secure accurate interpretations of what is presented. Authenticity is essential.

4. Encourage individual study of pictures by placing them on the bulletin board.
5. Organize pictures into sets related to a particular topic for individual and small-group study.



Oakland

Be on the lookout for photographs that can be secured from individuals in the community for use in science and social studies.

6. Encourage pupils to share pictures related to topics being studied. Help them to apply suitable criteria in selecting good pictures.

You may want to mount pictures on construction paper of harmonizing color in order to add to their attractiveness and effectiveness. Be sure to use good material for mountings. Avoid using material that produces glare; arrange the margins carefully; mount related pictures when necessary to give a group effect; and provide appropriate captions. Give special attention to pictures in textbooks; help the pupils to relate them to the major concepts and ideas that are being presented.



Oakland

By all means, place children's work on the bulletin board.

Demonstrations

Carefully planned and executed demonstrations make processes, ideas, and relationships clear to pupils. They provide opportunities for pupils to make directed observations and to hear pertinent comments related to questions, processes, and topics that otherwise might not be clear. Demonstrations enable you to bring out specific learnings in a prearranged sequence. They are not so time-consuming as first-hand experience, yet they possess many of the same values.

1. Make a specific plan to use during the demonstration. Plan a sequence of a few clear-cut steps that can be grasped by the group; avoid trying to develop too many ideas. Note steps that need additional explanation or that need to be repeated to insure understanding.

2. Be sure that necessary equipment and materials are available and properly arranged. Do not ruin the demonstration by fumbling around for chalk, paper, apparatus, or some other item. Rehearse the demonstration ahead of time if necessary to determine if the equipment is in working order and if your arrangements are satisfactory.

3. Begin the demonstration by indicating how it is related to the unit, what its specific purposes are, what each pupil should observe,



Los Angeles

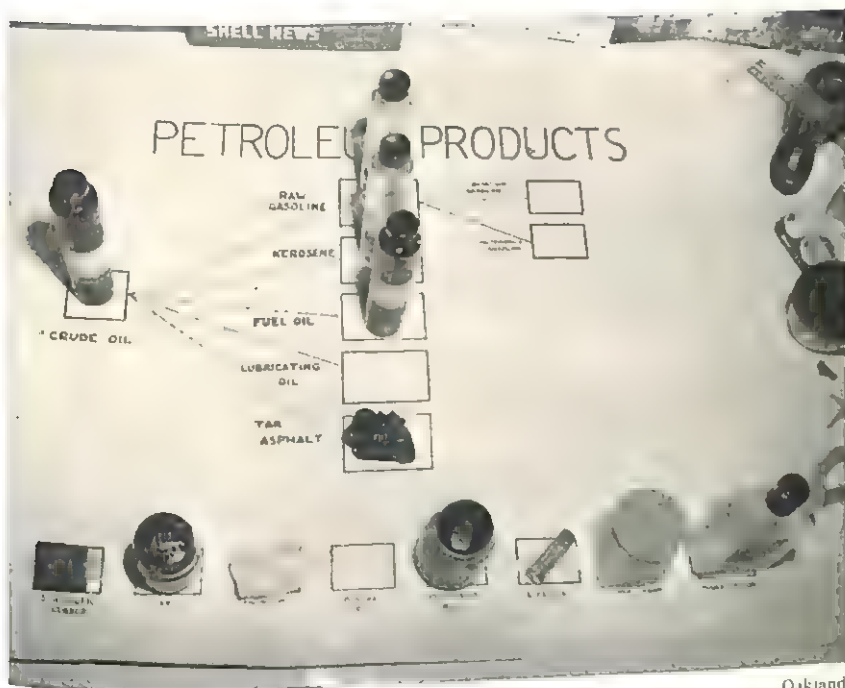
Carry out demonstrations in a carefully planned sequence.

how notes may be taken (if necessary), and any other activities to be carried out by the pupils. Active observation on the part of pupils is essential. Be sure each pupil can see and hear.

4. Proceed with the demonstration according to plan, developing each step meaningfully and noting pupil reactions. Time the demonstration to make sure it does not run too long. Call attention to key points and explain difficult concepts.

5. Terminate the demonstration in time for comments, questions, inferences, applications, summaries, and evaluation. Review any parts that are not understood.

6. Use a chart or the chalkboard to list steps that are to be carried out in follow-up activities. Encourage questions and comments to clarify follow-up activities. Evaluate follow-up activities to make sure that the ideas learned in the demonstration are put to effective use.



Oakland

Use samples in displays to develop vocabulary.

Realia

Realia are real objects, such as models, specimens, ornaments, utensils, tools, weapons, documents, museum pieces, and textiles. They convey specific, concrete meanings to pupils when they are used in demonstrations, discussions, exhibits, dioramas, and dramatic representations. They may be used in response to questions, problems, and purposes developed in classroom discussions, or to initiate discussions and to stimulate interest in specific aspects of a given topic or problem. Realia add interest

and zest to learning because of their concreteness and meaningfulness.

Realia can be secured from school collections, audio-visual departments, museums, business firms, school-supply firms, theatrical supply houses, school patrons, teachers, and pupils.



Children are eager to construct objects for use in specific activities.

Teachers and laymen who have traveled in foreign countries frequently have collections to share. Pupils are eager to bring objects to school or to construct models for classroom use. Real caution must be exercised in using materials brought by pupils or others, so that they will not be damaged.

1. Use models, specimens, objects, and other realia to develop specific concepts, to demonstrate how something works, or to create interest in a particular topic.
2. Encourage pupils to handle and manipulate objects, in order to see how they work. Fragile materials should, of course, be demonstrated to the class.

3. Encourage questions and comments so that clear concepts can be developed.
4. Relate the use of realia to concepts gained from reading, motion pictures, and other experiences.
5. Arrange realia in displays and exhibits.
6. Avoid using realia as gadgets unrelated to specific questions and problems being studied.



Albany, California

Specimens give concreteness and authenticity that can be secured in no other way.

Exhibits

Exhibits are especially effective because they can be organized as a combination of realia, posters, murals, pictures, and other materials. They should highlight the work of pupils and should be built around a major theme. The following suggestions will be helpful in planning exhibits:

1. Encourage pupils to assist in planning and preparing exhibits.
2. Work out balanced space arrangements; give attention to the use of tables, bulletin boards, and racks to hold materials. Use simple

backgrounds with appropriate labels and clear lettering to designate items.

3. Avoid weird color schemes and too much detail, inasmuch as a cluttered exhibit is confusing and does not promote learning.

4. Place key objects in outstanding positions, so that a viewer's



Santa Monica

Use exhibits to highlight activities and processes.

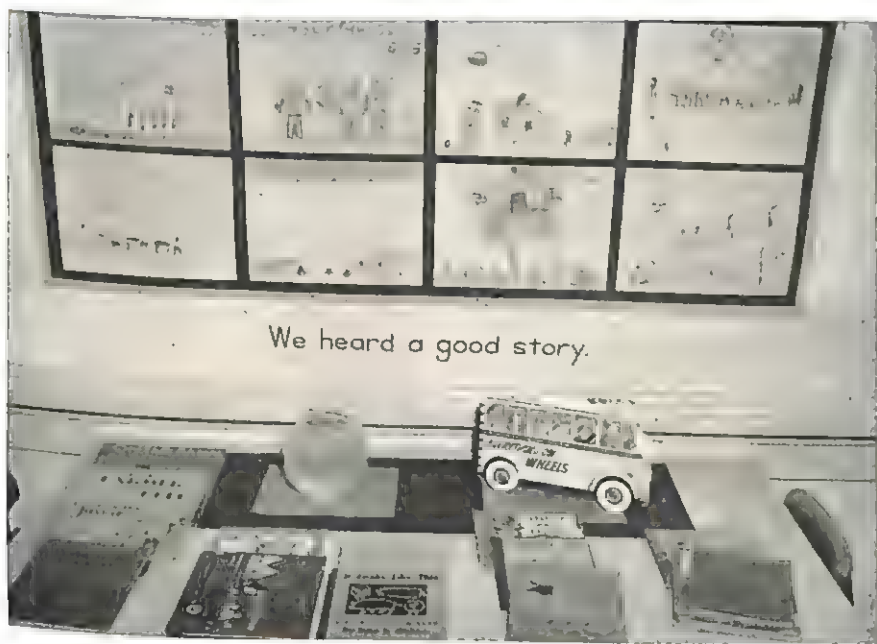
eye will naturally move to them. Arrange for discussions, demonstrations, and reports related to the exhibit.

5. Check lighting; be sure that materials are displayed at eye level.

6. Be creative in planning exhibits. Encourage the use of collections made by the pupils or laymen in the community. Use movement and sound to add to eye-catching qualities.

Graphic Representation

Types of graphic materials frequently used by teachers include charts, diagrams, sketches, drawings, maps, posters, murals, cartoons, and graphs. Graphic materials represent or symbolize reality. They are different from photographs in that they are a



Oakland

Children's drawings make an attractive background for book displays.

representation of something rather than an exact picture of it. Simplified sketches and drawings are often easier to understand than pictures involving a wealth of detail. The following guidelines are essential to effective utilization:

1. Explain symbols, scale, and other features that may cause confusion. Remember that map-reading, chart-reading, and graph-reading usually require instruction beforehand. Your explanations may range from a brief review to detailed teaching of symbols, depending upon the background of the class and the difficulty of the resource. (Give similar attention to materials in textbooks.)

2. Introduce graphic materials at the opportune moment—when specific points or questions have been brought up that bear directly upon the ideas presented in them. Emphasize the purpose of each item.



Glencoe Public Schools

Children use many different graphic materials to summarize key ideas.

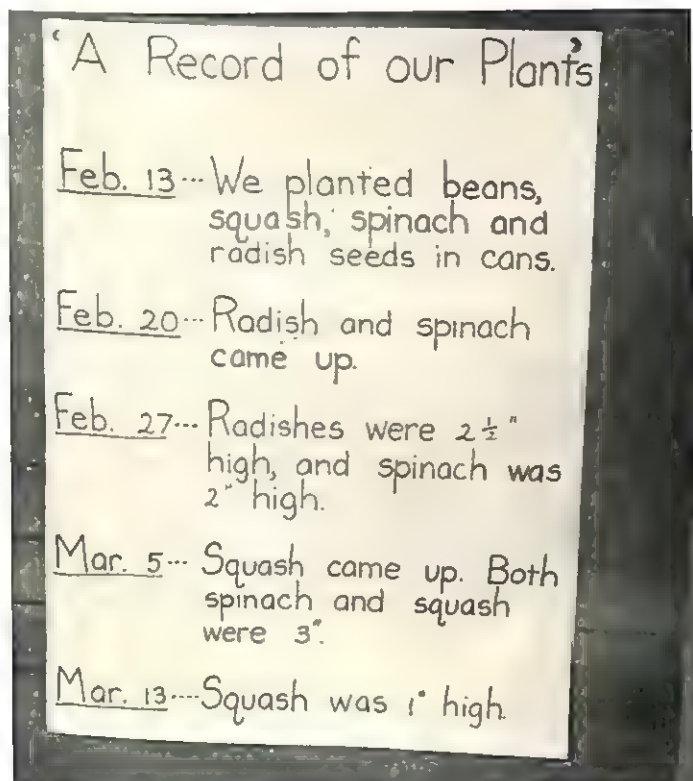
3. Because graphic materials usually summarize or highlight a key idea, be sure that the class has had adequate experience to grasp it. Use related pictures, objects, and other materials. Review and re-use graphic materials as questions and new problems arise.

4. Place the materials high enough so that all can see; be sure to stand beside them during discussion, not in front of them; and speak to the class, not to the materials.

5. Project small items by means of opaque projectors so that all

can see them clearly, and so that maximum participation can be secured.

In addition to the foregoing guide-lines, here are a few other points to keep in mind when you are using particular types of graphic materials.



Albany, California

Charts may be used to list group standards, present tables, provide directions, present a calendar of events, summarize key ideas, present terms and concepts, and classify material under main headings. Pictorial charts should be used, together with charts based on words or numbers.

Stick drawings are easy to make and can be used to serve a variety of purposes. Many teachers find it helpful to make stick

drawings as they give demonstrations or explain particular points. Pupils themselves can learn to use them in discussions and reports to the group.

Sketches of graphic materials can be made by using tracing paper, by copying material projected by the slide or opaque projector, by using ruled paper to increase or decrease the size of the original, or by using the pantograph.¹

Murals may be made on cloth, paper, and, if the administration permits, on the walls of corridors or rooms. You may want to secure the cooperation of the art teacher in working out your plans. Murals should be related to the major themes and topics being developed in a particular course.

Cartoons are designed to symbolize an event, person, or idea in an exaggerated manner. They may be drawn by pupils or selected from magazines or newspapers. Encourage children to give careful attention to interpretation, and to secure other points of view. Each cartoon should be checked against facts gathered from accurate sources.



Education Workshop
University of California, Berkeley

¹ See Edgar Dale, *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching*, p. 277. New York: The Dryden Press, 1916.

Posters are used to portray key ideas in a direct and appealing manner. Well-made posters are a unique combination of pictures, letters, and colors to form a stimulating and pleasing effect. They are frequently used in drives of various kinds, on holidays, in connection with special events, and in campaigns. A good poster tells a story at a glance; it is simple in detail, can be easily comprehended, and has one main center of interest. Plain lettering, effective color contrasts, a catchy title (sometimes expressed as a slogan), and attractive form are essential.

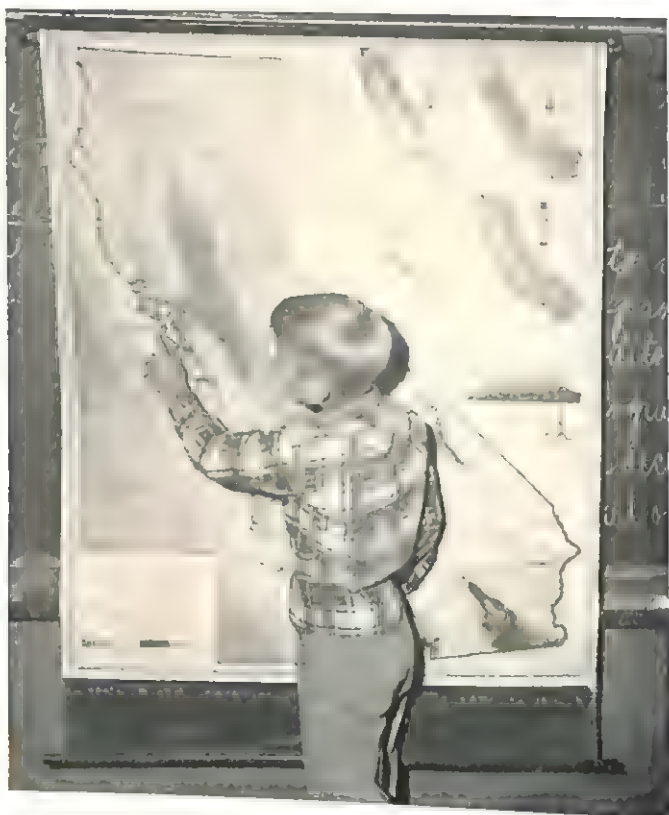
Diagrams are simple line drawings illustrating a specific point. They may show the layout of an airport, the steps in processing a product in a factory, or the arrangement of a farm. Examples may be secured from magazines, newspapers, books, pamphlets, and commercial sources, or you and the pupils may make them yourselves. When you make them in the classroom, you may use paper, cloth, the chalkboard, or the bulletin board.

Maps

Maps of many types are available for use in elementary schools. Examples are relief, pictorial, physical, political, economic, and weather maps. Try to use maps made by pupils as well as those purchased from school-supply houses. Depending on the activity, you may choose map outlines for desk use, chalkboard outlines for large-scale activities, or opaque projections. A globe, an atlas, and a gazetteer are also valuable in solving problems that arise in class. Special points to keep in mind are:

1. Use maps to introduce, summarize, and review topics and ideas. Make frequent reference to them as questions are raised and as points are made. Encourage pupils to do the same.
2. Be sure that each pupil understands the purpose for which the map was made and the purpose for which it is being used in class.
3. Use pictures, slides, and filmstrips along with maps to add reality and meaning.
4. Review and re-teach symbols and scales to facilitate interpretation and use of maps.
5. Refer to the globe when you are discussing a country or a con-

inent, in order to bring out its relationship to other places, and to clarify ideas regarding size, direction, distance, and shape. Have pupils note distortions on certain maps by comparing them with the globe.



Oakland

6. Encourage pupils to collect unusual maps—literary places, home countries of musicians, natural resources—from magazines, newspapers, and bulletins.

7. Use map-making as a means of summarizing ideas. Encourage accuracy and proper use of color, symbols, and scale. (See next chapter.)

8. Use maps in exhibits and on bulletin boards.

Radio, Recordings, and Television

Radio broadcasts, phonograph records, transcriptions, and television programs present material in a dramatic and effective manner. They enable you to bring inaugurations, national and international conferences, holiday celebrations, commemora-



Direct children's attention to educational programs on television and radio.

tions, and special events into the classroom. In some school systems a recorder is used to transcribe selected programs so that they can be reproduced as needed. Phonograph records are available on a host of topics. You can make proper use of these resources in the following ways:

1. Check on local and national programs especially planned for the schools, and select those that are appropriate for your class.

2. Check on regular programs (non-school), and select those that are appropriate.
3. Check programs that are on the air before and after school. Encourage children to listen to high-quality programs related to the work going on in class, and to other programs of general interest.
4. Determine broadcast schedules by checking local newspapers, bulletins from the major networks, *Scholastic Teacher* (which lists selected programs each month), bulletins or guides from your school



Los Angeles

Simulated broadcasts require much planning on the part of children.

system, guides issued in states that have state-wide programs, and special bulletins issued by companies sponsoring programs for pupils. Bulletins from networks are available in school libraries or may be secured directly from the offices of the broadcasting systems.

5. Take advantage of information on recordings offered in school-system catalogs, commercial catalogs, recommended lists, professional magazines, yearbooks, methods texts, and teacher's manuals.

6. Relate listening experiences to purposes, and to the problems and topics being studied. Be sure that pupils have significant purposes for listening, and that they put information to use in discussion and other follow-up activities.

Broadcasting by Students

Broadcasts by students themselves are being used in many schools. These broadcasts may be over a real station, or over the public-address system. Examples of broadcasts that have been carried out satisfactorily by pupils are:

Announcements	Interviews	Sports roundups
Committee reports	Newscasts	Safety talks
Dramatizations	Panels	Special events
Forums	Quiz programs	Student activities
Holiday programs	Roundtables	Town meetings

In addition to "live" broadcasts, many teachers have simulated broadcasts as a special activity within the classroom. Current events and special reports are well suited to such activities. Sometimes it is helpful to make a tape, wire, or disk recording of the simulated broadcast and play it back for specific evaluation.

Summary

Audio-visual materials should be viewed as integral components of the instructional program, not as gadgets or side-shows to entertain children. Each resource should be selected in terms of specific purposes, studied before utilization, utilized in accordance with sound principles, and put to use in follow-up activities. Equipment and classroom arrangements should be checked before utilization. A variety of resources should be employed, each being selected because it is best for a particular purpose. Techniques for using each type of resource should be employed systematically so that a high level of learning will be maintained.

In addition to the instructional resources discussed in this chapter, there are several types of material that can be made for immediate use in the classroom. The next chapter outlines specific directions for making certain materials that elementary teachers have found to be especially helpful. As you read it,

consider kinds of materials that you can make for use in student teaching.

Suggestions for Further Reading

- Burr, J. B., L. W. Harding, and L. B. Jacobs, *Student Teaching in the Elementary School*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950. Chapter IX presents practical suggestions on the utilization of learning materials.
- Dale, Edgar, *Audio-visual Methods of Teaching*. New York: The Dryden Press, 1946. A comprehensive treatment of various types of resources, with principles and techniques of selection, utilization, and evaluation; specific suggestions are made regarding the use of materials in various areas of the curriculum.
- East, Marjorie, *Display for Learning*. New York: The Dryden Press, 1952. Practical suggestions on the preparation and use of all types of graphic aids.
- Kinder, J. S., *Audio-visual Materials and Techniques*. New York: American Book Company, 1950. A good guide to sources of materials, techniques of utilization, and preparation of materials.
- Kinney, Lucien, and Katherine Dresden, *Better Learning Through Current Materials*. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1952. Suggestions on the selection, arrangement, and use of current materials.
- McKown, H. C., and A. B. Roberts, *Audio-visual Aids to Instruction*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1949. A detailed account of principles and techniques involved in the use of audio-visual materials; specific chapters are devoted to their use in the elementary school.
- Michaelis, J. U., *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950. Chapters VIII-XIV discuss principles and techniques of selecting and utilizing instructional materials; construction, dramatic representation, and reading materials are discussed, in addition to other types of resources.
- National Society for the Study of Education, *Audio-visual Materials of Instruction*, Forty-eighth Yearbook, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1949. An excellent source of background information on research in audio-visual education.
- Wittich, W. A., and C. F. Schuller, *Audio-visual Materials*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1953. A detailed account of all types of audio-visual materials, including television. Many photographs and drawings are used to illustrate outstanding classroom practices.

11

Making Audio-visual Materials

AS A STUDENT TEACHER, you will want to make some original contribution to the audio-visual resources being utilized in your class. You may devise various types of materials that are appropriate for use in units of work, developmental or remedial reading, arithmetic, science, club activities, or in public-relations activities, such as an open house for parents. Examples of various types of materials are presented in this chapter, together with specific directions for their construction. Some of these materials can be made by the children themselves. The main point of this chapter is to make available to you in handy and usable form specific directions for making charts, slides, opaque projections, maps, and dioramas. The references at the end of the chapter contain suggestions on the making of other materials.

CHARTS

Charts are used to record various kinds of information, ranging from vocabulary lists in reading, science, and social studies to detailed directions for carrying out processes in art or experiments in science. They are used in place of the chalkboard when needed information is to be used several times by the group. They also are used in making displays, exhibits, and bulletin-board arrangements.

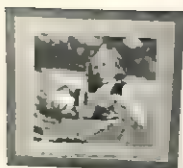
Temporary charts, such as those used to record daily plans, to write the first draft of a poem or story created by the group, or to record daily news items, are made on newsprint or manila



October

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8 9 10 11 12 13 14
15 16 17 18 19 20 21
22 23 24 25 26 27 28
29 30

What day is today?



Jane went to the vegetable market for Mother.

How many of these nice, fresh vegetables and fruit can you name?

Which ones do you like best?



See our goldfish.

Three little goldfish

One, two, three

4



The Songs We Like To Sing

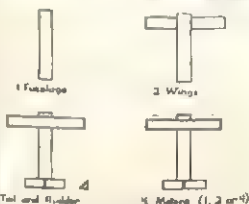
America

Halloween

Fall Colors

We help

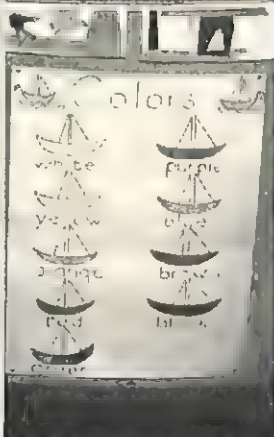
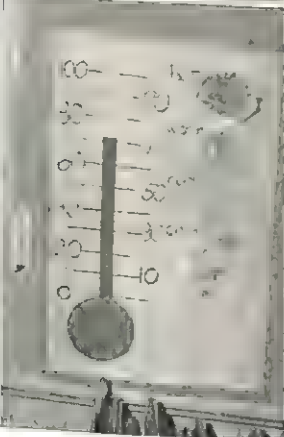
Julian washes the brushes
Marcia washes the clay tra
Brenda } carry the balls.
Sandra }
Niki is the librarian
Dean sweeps the floor.
Michael uses the dust pan
Pat straightens the cha
Peggy is the messenger
Cheryl } clean the erasers
Margaret }



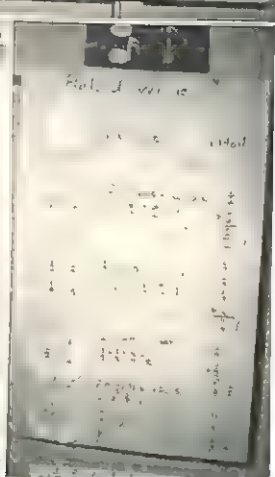
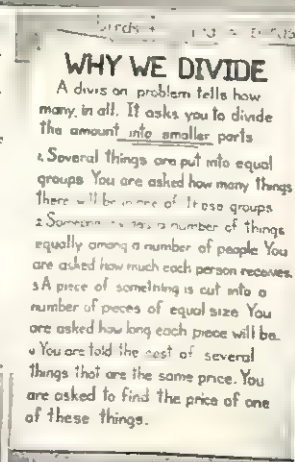
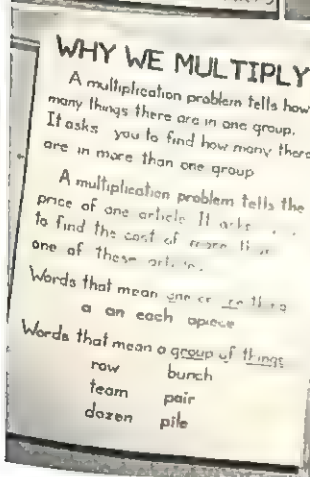
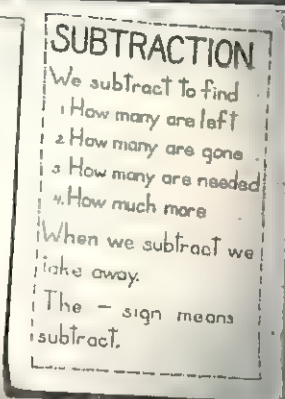
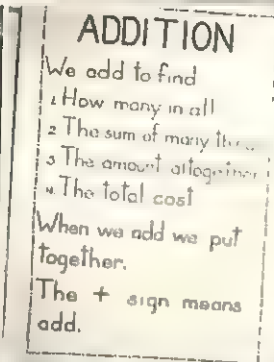
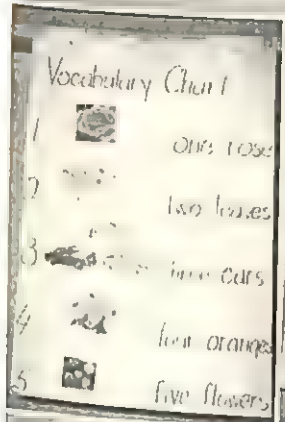
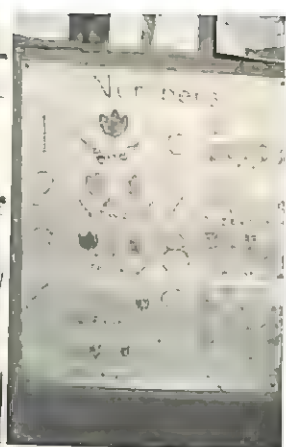
5. Landing Gear



We have two parakeets
We like to see them play.
They go up the ladder
They like to swing

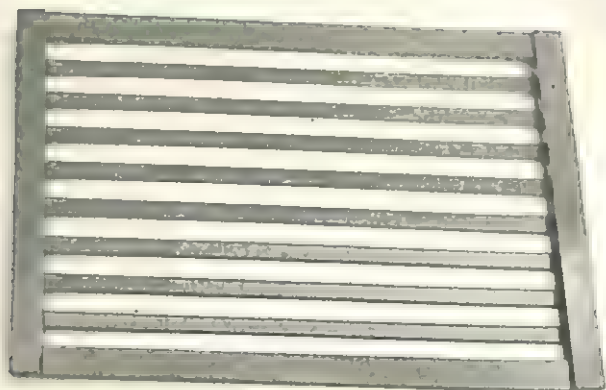


Los Angeles



paper. More permanent charts typically are made before or after school on butcher or kraft paper, or on oak tagboard. Lettering on both temporary and permanent charts should be done in manuscript rather than cursive writing. Good sizes for classroom use are 24 by 30 or 24 by 36 inches.

Effective charts are intelligible to children, authentic, and geared to the group's level of development. Sentence structure, spelling, usage, punctuation, and capitalization should be in proper form. Paragraphs should be indented as they are in reading materials being used in class. Illustrations such as pictures,



A good chart liner can be made by nailing $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch strips $\frac{7}{8}$ of an inch apart on a frame that is 18 inches by 24 inches.

photographs, or drawings may be used to add to the attractiveness and meaningfulness of charts. The format of a chart should be similar to that of a properly mounted picture.

Materials needed include paper or tagboard, chart liner or yardstick, India ink, china-marking pencil or black Crayola, felt pen, Speedball round-nib pen B2 or Esterbrook No. 4 (for Grades I and II), Speedball B2 or B3 or Esterbrook No. 4 (for other grades), penholder, and hard pencil for marking lines and spaces.

Procedures. Determine what the content of the chart is to be. Use chart liner (or yardstick) to mark off spaces with lead pencil. Leave margins of at least one and one-half to three inches at sides and bottom, and two to two and one-half inches at the top. Allow space for any illustrations. Space title about three inches above first line. Make small letters approximately one inch high and capital letters one and one-half to two inches high when charts are to be used with the entire group. Smaller letters may be used with small groups. Allow one or two spaces between lines. Do not allow tall letters or capitals to overlap or touch the letters above, or tail letters to touch the letters on the line below. Leave space between words equal to letter "w" in Grade I, and letter "o" in other grades. If sentences are longer than one line, divide them into meaningful phrases to promote reading ability.

Evaluation of Charts. The following points deal with the appraisal of charts. They will be helpful guides to you in chart-making.

1. Does the chart meet significant teacher and pupil purposes?
2. Are ideas expressed clearly? Is content authentic? Does the chart reflect originality?
3. Is the vocabulary appropriate to the reading ability of the group? Is it meaningful? Is it effective?
4. Are illustrations used effectively?
5. Are space divisions satisfactory? Margins? Title? Paragraphing? Alignment?
6. Is lettering satisfactory? Form? Size of letters? Legibility? Uniformity?
7. Is spacing effective? Between letters? Between words? Between lines?
8. Is general workmanship neat and of high quality?

GLASS SLIDES AND OPAQUE PROJECTIONS

Glass slides and opaque projections may be used to introduce topics, to stimulate interest, to raise specific questions, to answer questions, to clarify concepts, to stimulate self-expression, to culminate an activity, and to evaluate learning. They are helpful

in stimulating group participation as well as individual learning. Projected materials provide an opportunity for the group and the individual to examine and discuss at length the topic under consideration.

Etched Glass Slides

Materials needed in preparing glass slides include etched glass 4 by 3¼ inches, frosted on one side; clear glass cover of the same size; gummed slide-binding tape and dispenser; thumb-spot markers; medium-hard pencil; slide-making pencil crayons; razor blade or scissors.



Glass slides, glass-slide holder, crayons for slide-making, and Radio-Mats for typing material to be projected are easy to secure and use.

Procedures. Here are some general instructions that apply to any type of handmade slide:

1. Prepare a working copy on paper 4 by 3½ inches; measure in $\frac{3}{8}$ of an inch from the edges and draw a rectangle 3¼ by 2½ inches. This represents the portion of the slide that will show on the screen when it is projected. Prepare your drawing within the rectangle, remembering that slides may be projected only with the *long dimension in the horizontal position*.
2. Place the slide over the drawing and trace the outline; be careful not to smear, leave fingerprints, make erasures, or otherwise alter the surface of the slide, because defects are greatly magnified when they are projected on the screen. Keep a piece of paper over that part

of the slide on which you are not working. *Handle slide by edges only.*

3. Many teachers find it helpful to use a slide-holder to keep slide in place over copy.

4. Preserve glass slides by taping a piece of clear glass over the drawing, on the two long edges at least, with colored Scotch tape or gummed slide-binding tape.

5. Place a thumb-spot marker on the lower left-hand corner of the slide. When you insert the slide into the projector, hold the marker between thumb and index finger of right hand as you face the screen.

6. Old slides can be cleaned for re-use by moistening them, applying slide cleaner, scrubbing with toothbrush, rinsing, and drying.

Pencil Slides. Place the etched glass on the material to be projected, or make a tracing or preliminary drawing on white paper. Place the preliminary drawing in slide-holder with glass slide superimposed on it. Trace with medium-hard pencil. Use shading to get various effects.

Colored Slides. Make a preliminary drawing with medium-hard pencil and trace on glass slide as described above. Then use colored slide crayons, being careful to apply colors evenly right up to the pencil outline. Keep the crayons sharp by rubbing them on sand paper. Use a light-box as needed. Excellent shaded effects can be secured by blending colors. Tape and mark as indicated in (4) and (5) above.

Typewritten Material. Secure *Radio-Mat* form; insert in typewriter and type material directly on it; discard the back of envelope and red sheet; place typed film in clear glass slides; and bind.

Other Slides. Silhouette slides can be made by cutting figures out of black paper (or other dark paper) and mounting them between clear glass slides. Transparent inks can be used to give bright color effects. China-marking pencils may be used on plain glass; they are easy for children to use. India ink can be used to give sharp outlines, as on map slides. Colored cellophane can be used to give striking color effects. Lumarith, a cellulose ace-

tate material, may be used to make slides that can be projected without placing them between clear glass covers.

Opaque Projections

Opaque projections require a projector that utilizes reflected light to magnify and project pictures, book pages, pupils' papers, small flat objects, drawings, textiles, and similar materials. Since the materials to be projected need not be transparent, you can use a wide variety of resources not available for ordinary projection.

Materials needed in preparing opaque projections include pictures, maps, songs, outlines, or other opaque materials for mounting; chipboard #50; rubber cement; flat brushes (1½-inch or ¾-inch); paper-cutter or shears.

Procedures. Select material to fit projection area of standard opaque projectors (6 by 6 inches). Trim neatly, apply rubber cement to back of material with brush, and mount on center of chipboard 7 by 10 inches in size; mounts of this size are easy to handle and to file.

Do all mounting work on pages of an old magazine to prevent smearing. Use a clean page for each mounting. Begin by applying cement to center of picture and work to edges rapidly; be sure to cover the entire back surface. Mount the picture on chipboard and rub with a dry cloth to insure close contact. Cover the mounted material with oiled paper and place under a pile of books until cement is dry. Wipe off excess cement from surface of chipboard after it has dried. Enter classification information on area not covered by material.

MAKING MAPS

You will be able to use a variety of types of maps in your elementary-school teaching. Michaelis has prepared a list of those most frequently made:¹

¹ John U. Michaelis, *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*, pp. 279-280. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950.

1. Floor, wall, pictorial, outline, and mural maps.
2. Specimen maps using real items such as wheat, corn, and rocks.
3. Relief maps made of papier-mâché, salt and flour, or clay.
4. Transportation, communication, historical, air-age, and political maps.
5. Special feature maps showing national parks, forests, rivers, production of selected commodities, and homes of great people.
6. Map slides for projection, and cellophane outline maps to lay over physical maps and thus indicate relationships.

If you are to be successful in making maps such as these, you must give careful attention to several specific details.

Transferring Maps Accurately. At first, children need experience with maps that portray places they have been and trips they have taken. Later, they are ready to use and make maps of larger areas. Hence you will need to know how to transfer certain features of an area from an accurate, ready-made map to a map on which children can enter their own data.

The opaque projector provides the quickest, most accurate means of making the transfer. Small maps of the desired area can usually be found in books, magazines, and newspapers. Children can use these directly with the opaque projector. Or they can prepare slides for projection by making tracings with India ink on clear glass, or with china-marking pencil on frosted glass. The maps can be enlarged to a usable size. Children can trace the projected outlines with chalk, pencil, or crayon on any chosen background.

If a series of maps is to be made, a cut-out pattern of a given area may be useful. Each map in the series might show a different feature—for example, in a series of maps of a state, one map might show climatic areas; another, land forms; another, agricultural products; and yet another, transportation and trade centers. The cut-out pattern is made by pasting an accurate map of the desired size on a piece of chipboard and then cutting around the borders. The children can then place the pattern on the chosen background material and draw around it with pencil or crayon. To avoid misconceptions, have them sketch in light

lines to indicate the continuity of land forms around the chosen area. For instance, Brazil traced from such a pattern would look like an island unless the bordering areas were suggested.

Onion-skin paper is an old stand-by for tracing map outlines. Its use, however, is complicated and time-consuming, since three tracings are required: one to transfer the original outline to the onion-skin paper, one to impress the tracing on the selected



University Elementary School
University of Minnesota

Children use maps to summarize key ideas.

background material, and one to form the outline of the new map. When children undertake these tracings, there are apt to be many slips and smears before the transfer is completed. The process is useful only when no projectors are available, or when the map to be transferred is too large to be projected.

Freehand sketching in reproducing or enlarging a map is a difficult process. It involves an understanding of parallels and meridians and a concept of proportion. First, determine the section of the map to be transferred. Then square the back-

grounds of both the original and the new map with a like number of longitudinal and latitudinal lines. Then do the freehand sketching square by square, maintaining relative proportion. Some sixth-grade children can use this process with a high degree of accuracy.

True freehand sketching or diagramming, in which no direct use is made of parallels and meridians, is widely used in the primary grades. This is a desirable map-making skill to continue in the upper grades. With this technique, however, children are creating a map of comparatively small area from direct observation; they are not attempting to reproduce a map already drawn.

Materials and Processes. Some map-making materials can be used more effectively than others in the elementary school. Tagboard and other hard, smooth-surfaced papers respond better to Speedball pens and India ink than to wax crayons or tempera. Map symbols on such hard-surfaced backgrounds must be diagrammatic and simple.

Construction, manila, bogus, chipboard, and some "butcher roll" paper can be used effectively with India ink, wax crayon, or tempera. Wax crayon gives an interesting effect when it is applied with light strokes in some areas and with heavier strokes in others—for example, to indicate borders, seacoasts, and specific symbols.

The rough surface on the reverse side of oilcloth responds to wax crayon and tempera. An old window shade also makes a good background for colored maps.

Wax crayons can be applied to muslin or percale and then pressed between blotters with a moderately warm iron. The melted wax is absorbed by the blotter and the color is "set" in the material. It is important to apply the crayon in only one direction, with even, smooth strokes. Heavier strokes may be used to accent certain features. Too much wax is likely to run before it is absorbed by the blotters. A little practice on scraps of cloth is advisable beforehand.

Relief Maps. Relief maps are fun to make and help to clarify children's concepts of terrain in relation to land and water

forms. Recipes for papier-mâché or flour-and-salt mixtures follow:

Papier-Mâché

Materials. A non-rusting container; 25 sheets of newspaper or equivalent amount of paper towels; four cups of flour; two cups of salt.

Procedures. Tear paper into fine shreds and soak in water for 24 hours; squeeze out water; add flour and paste and mix until a smooth consistency is achieved.

(*Note:* A good substitute for flour is starch. One tablespoon of glue added to each pint of starch paste makes a good modeling mixture.)

Flour-and-Salt Paste for Surface Modeling

Materials. Heavy cardboard or beaverboard to serve as base; equal parts of flour and paste.

Procedures. Mix flour and salt with cold water to make a mixture of thick consistency for modeling. Place on cardboard base and model it. In building elevations on relief maps, build up one layer at a time, allowing each layer to dry before adding another. Paint after the mixture has dried.

Another method is to moisten sheets of newspaper with paste, using a large brush. The paper becomes soft, so that it can be pushed and pressed onto the background of the map. Contours can be pinched and molded quickly. Children can stop work and begin again when they are ready, since they make the pulp as they work. If a smoother surface is desired, narrower strips of paste-soaked newspaper can be fitted over the molded features. The total mass adheres well and dries quickly. When dry, it can be painted with tempera. Children work with this simple process freely and independently, achieving results that compare favorably with those of more complicated recipes and molding processes.

An easy-to-use recipe for paste that can be used in making relief maps, as well as for other purposes, follows:

Materials. Two cups of flour; one tablespoon of powdered alum; one heaping teaspoon of oil of cloves; one cup of boiling water; two cups of cold water.

Procedures. Add powdered alum to cup of boiling water. Mix flour in cold water until smooth, then pour mixture slowly into boiling water. Stirring well, cook until "bluish" in color. Remove from fire. Stir in oil of cloves. Keep in airtight jars, and soften as needed by adding water.

Papier-mâché and flour-salt modeling paste are used successfully by some teachers to make relief maps. The directions for preparing them should be followed carefully.

Puzzle Maps. Wood and beaverboard are the best background materials for making puzzle maps. If chipboard is used, pressure should be applied to the corners while the mounted map is drying; this prevents curling. Maps painted on plywood backgrounds can be cut into sections with a jig-saw or with a coping saw and used as puzzles. A plywood, beaverboard, or heavy chipboard tray to hold the map while children are solving the puzzle is helpful. The tray may well have a painted outline of the total area to be assembled. The map puzzle may be based on political divisions, climatic sections, produce belts, or natural land divisions. The map itself should be relatively simple. Rivers, coastlines, and elevations keyed with colors serve as clues in rearranging the puzzle and provide worth-while geographic learnings.

Illustrations and Symbols. Illustrations add interest to maps, and the research necessary for children to prepare authentic illustrations increases the learning possibilities of the map-making. Children seem more satisfied with the activity when they make their illustrations on separate pieces of paper and paste them on the map. If they wish to modify or improve a picture, they can do so without spoiling the rest of the map. Of course, when maps are prepared on the back of oilcloth or on other textiles, the illustrations are applied directly to the material. Placement of illustrations is usually more accurate when the pictures are positioned around the border and keyed by number to the actual location on the map. Or lines can be

drawn from the pictures to the map locations. Pictures mounted on separate backgrounds may be tied to the map with colored thread attached by gummed dots, or with pins that have colored heads.

Keyed colors and diagrammatic symbols are applied directly to the map with crayon, paint, or India ink. Symbols can, of course, be cut out of paper and pasted on.

Specimens of products of an area are often attached by gluing, sewing, or wiring them to the background of the map. Grains and other agricultural specimens may be placed in small match boxes covered with cellophane and attached with glue or strong thread. Samples of lumber or ores may be wired directly to the border of the map. Small pill bottles of a uniform size make good containers and can be wired to chipboard or heavier backgrounds. Various gummed tapes, though easy to use, are not satisfactory for permanent mounting, because time and temperature affect their adhesive qualities.

As with illustrations, specimens can be attached to the border or to a separate section of the map and keyed by a number or symbol, or joined by arrows to the exact location.

Miniature models may also be made by the children and attached in the ways described above. Small clay fruits or animals, and tiny wooden transportation models enrich map study for upper-grade children.

Lettering. Captions can be painted on strips of paper and pasted to the map. Mistakes in spelling can be corrected without damaging the work that has already been done, and the captions can be centered easily without laborious ruling. Remember that the printing of fourth-grade children and of many older children is still quite large. Accuracy of location can be maintained if place names are listed to one side of the map and attached or keyed by one of the methods suggested above. Devising a key for the symbols used on the map is an essential part of the learning involved in map-making. Transfer of understanding to keys used on other maps should, of course, be encouraged. The children should also work out distance scales for accurately enlarged

maps. In preparing both the keys and the scales, the printing should be done on separate paper and pasted to the map. If the entire class is to benefit from the research of the map-making committee, all illustrations and specimens must be labeled.

DIORAMAS

The typical diorama is much like a miniature stage setting. It has a foreground of three-dimensional objects and a pictorial background. The setting (or scene) is placed in a box-like container with an opening at the top for light, and with a framed opening on the side to further the idea of a stage. Listed below are examples of dioramas that can be made for use in elementary schools.

Securing Food. Milking scene on a dairy farm; feeding chickens on a chicken ranch; picking and loading lettuce; harvesting wheat; irrigating a tomato field.

Lumbering. Felling trees; loading lumber trucks; conveying logs from the millpond to the sawmill; hauling lumber to the city by train or truck; using a truck to move lumber in the lumberyard.

Ranch Life. Making adobe bricks; molding tallow for early trade; drying hides; making shoes; weaving cloth; planting gardens; cooking in outdoor ovens; building an irrigation aqueduct.

Pioneer Travel. Making a birchbark canoe; traveling on foot or horseback along a trail; using a log raft; a pack horse, or horses with drags; a Conestoga wagon; a flat houseboat; the Pony Express; a stagecoach; early railroads.

Life in Latin America. An Indian family making pottery, or weaving rugs and blankets; Cuban workmen cutting and loading sugar cane; Brazilian children sorting coffee beans; a family of Ecuador weaving Panama hats; Peruvian farmers turning the soil with ox-drawn wooden plows; Chilean miners loading copper ore on airplanes; Argentine cowboys riding herd.

Using Basic Tools. Prying a rock with a lever; loading trucks with the inclined plane; lifting a workman into position with

pulleys; moving goods on a conveyor belt by means of wheels and axles.

George Washington. Surveying the unknown West; with his men at Valley Forge; crossing the Delaware; inaugurated as President; returning to Mount Vernon.

Literature. (Scenes from books:) Alice has tea with the Mad Hatter, the March Hare, and the Dormouse; Robinson Crusoe



Education Workshop
University of California, Berkeley

Dioramas can be used effectively in a display.

finds Friday's footprints; the animals hold a conference about the camel who would only say "Humph"; Christopher Robin catches Winnie the Pooh in his trap for "Half-a-lumps."

Suggestions for Construction

The Container. Give careful attention to the size of the box in which the diorama is to be built. The size of the container

affects the relative sizes of the objects in the foreground. If you are planning a series of dioramas, try to have the containers uniform in size. Suggest that the children secure boxes from the corner grocery store. Cardboard cartons are lighter to handle than wooden boxes and can be obtained in a wider variety of shapes and sizes. Moreover, the background scenery can be attached to cardboard more easily than it can be to wood. The outside of a carton can be quickly and neatly covered with paper and all edges can be finished with gummed tape. Wood, on the other hand, requires sanding and finishing.

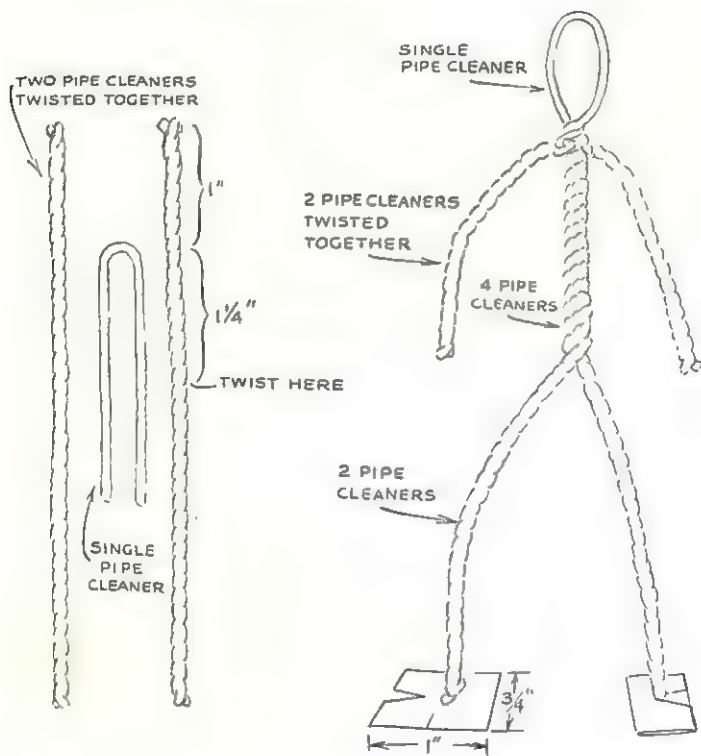
Simple dioramic arrangements can be made on flat pieces of beaverboard, chipboard, or wood. The back of the stage may even be omitted. If a background is needed, you can use curved pieces of chipboard or tagboard held in place by gummed paper.

The Foreground

In the foreground of the diorama are mounted the objects and figures that tell the story. Ordinarily, this part should be planned and constructed first. Be sure to keep in mind the educational values of the activity and the authenticity of both subject and materials. If the diorama is to enlarge and clarify the children's understandings, the design, story, and effect must be authentic, even if the materials are not. Originality and creativity within the limitations of authenticity are keynotes to planning the foreground. Children will naturally experiment to achieve artistic balance and grouping as they arrange various scenes.

Figures. Pipe cleaners and wire are effective materials in making figures because they can be bent into position for the activities portrayed. For example, the lumberjack can be shown at work. The truck driver can sit at his steering wheel. Clothes for the figures can be made from cloth, leather, lace, and other real materials. Small printed, striped, or checked designs are recommended, because they are less likely to distort proportions. Figures of animals can also be introduced into the diorama. Pipe-cleaner forms wrapped with yarn or strips of stocking are

effective. Wooden animals cut out with a jig-saw and mounted on wooden stands are practical for farm scenes; they encourage manipulation and dramatic play. In fact, making a set of farm animals is a very purposeful activity even if they are not to be used in a diorama.

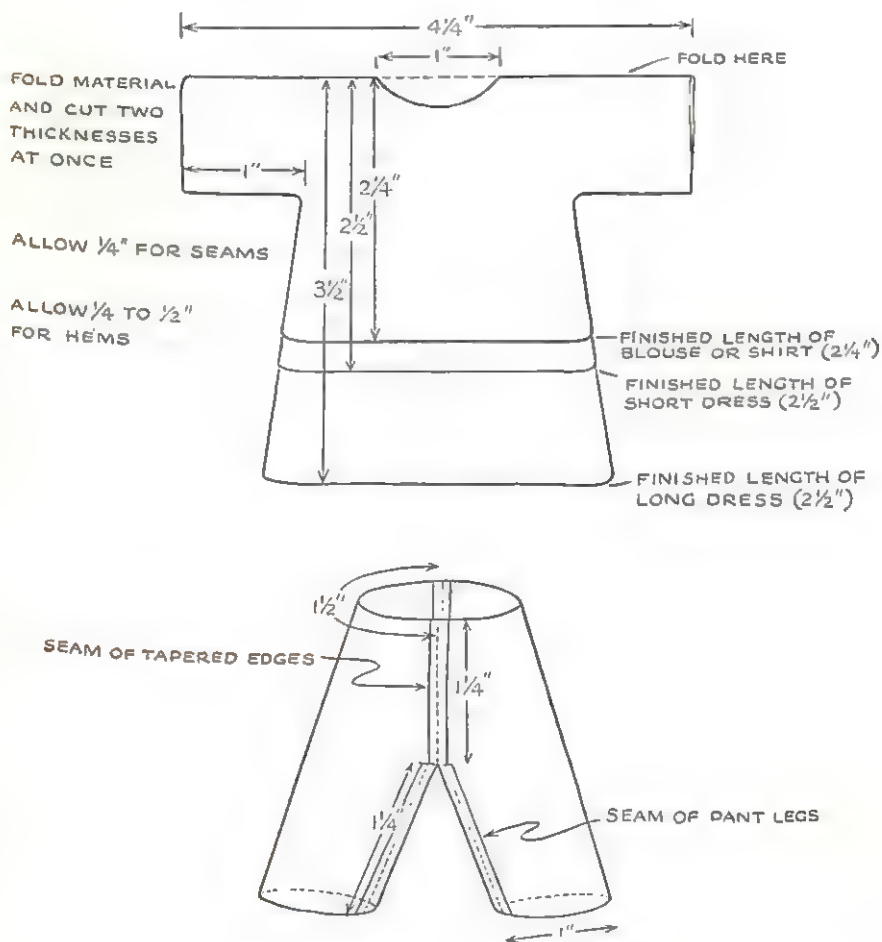


Pipe-cleaner Figures. The following directions for pipe-cleaner figures will save you much time and trouble.

Materials. Five pipe cleaners for body; two pieces of heavy tin foil or sheet lead for feet; plastic wood or darning thread for hair; round wooden head or cotton covered with piece of stocking for head; yarn strips of stocking to wrap body, arms, and legs.

Procedures. Twist two pipe cleaners together; twist two more together; bend one pipe cleaner in middle, as in accompanying

diagram; lay two twisted pairs parallel; lay bent cleaner between them, with loop end one inch from end; twist all of them together $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches down from loop to form body; shape legs and



Pattern for shirt, blouse, or dress.

arms; pad loop with cotton to make head, covering it with silk stocking; or slip wooden head over loop, or make head of papier-mâché (make somewhat larger than desired, to provide for shrinkage in drying); bend strips of lead or tin foil to make feet; wrap yarn or strips of stocking around legs, arms, body; paint

face, or stitch with colored thread on cotton-stuffed head; mold hair of plastic wood on bead or glue on yarn or heavy thread; make stitches of yarn or thread for hair on cotton head; prepare appropriate clothes.

Clothes for Pipe-cleaner Dolls. Use cotton material in fine stripes, tiny prints, or plain colors; make dresses, blouses, and shirts in one piece, including sleeves as in accompanying diagram; for trousers, cut two $2\frac{1}{2}$ -inch squares of material; fold each piece and sew half way up the long edge to make pant legs; trim from end of seam to top, making the pants taper in at the waist; sew tapered edges together as shown.

Buildings. Try to use materials suited to the type of building being constructed. Raffia and twigs make authentic grass huts. Log cabins, adobe bricks, skin wigwams, canvas tents, and frame houses can be very realistic both in material and design. Sometimes only a part of a building will serve to suggest the whole structure—for example, the express platform of a railroad station, or the courtyard arches of a mission. In such cases, the structure is firmly attached to the background of the diorama.

Trucks, Boats, Furniture, and Equipment. Most models of working equipment should be made of wood. Wood-working provides children with valuable experience in handling tools and learning the various operations. A supply of lumber in small measurements, doweling in a variety of sizes, button molds for wheels, and a stock of balsa wood suggest to children many ways in which they can work out their plans for the foreground. If classroom tools are not available for this kind of construction, children of the upper grades can often borrow them from workshops at home. Sandpaper, glue, small nails, and tacks must be readily available. In planning the scale of wooden models, direct the children's attention to the relative sizes of buildings, people, and other objects on the scene.

Fences. Use twigs, small pebbles, wire, screen, or match sticks.

Trees and Shrubs. Use sponge or crepe paper for foliage. Dried weeds suggest winter plants. Sprigs of evergreen suggest hedges.

Ground and Floors. If the children decide to use real soil or sand, suggest that they leave an inch or two of cardboard along the bottom of the opened side of the diorama box. Hills can be built of clay or papier-mâché. Cement surfaces are suggested by fine sandpaper; grass, by turkish toweling dyed green; water or ice, by mirrors, tin, or even blue paper under cellophane; ocean water, by crinkled blue paper with painted whitecaps for waves, or by a thin layer of clay with painted wave effects. Christmas-tree snow is useful in simulating winter scenes.

Be sure that the children devise an effective method of fastening the foreground objects to the floor. If objects are to be stationary, they may be glued, sewed, or wired into place. If the scene is to be shifted, a base of sheet lead, wood, or Plasticene will help to keep light objects upright.

The Background

The background of a diorama grows with the foreground, since it completes the picture and carries the scene into the distance. Bogus paper, tagboard, butcher paper, colored construction paper, muslin, and the back of oilcloth are suitable materials. Wax crayon, colored chalk, and poster or calcimine paints are suitable media. The so-called water-color paints have a transparent quality and lack strength. Background pictures can be cut from colored construction paper and pasted into place, but this scheme requires considerably more time than others and is no more effective.

It is easier to complete the background picture separately and then to glue or paste it into place. Straight backgrounds that use the corners of the box are good for indoor scenes. Parts of the room, such as the fireplace, can be attached to the walls. Curved backgrounds are more natural for outdoor scenes.

Children of elementary-school age often need help in creating perspective, the illusion of distance on a flat surface. If they ask for help, suggest that far-away objects look smaller in size, grayer in color, and seem to be placed higher in space. Ask them to visualize the change in appearance of two boys of about the

same size, each wearing a plaid shirt, when one stands at the school door and the other walks down the street.

There is another phase of perspective that disturbs teachers more than it does children. This is "linear perspective," in which lines converge at a vanishing point. Children do not usually encounter this type of problem unless they are making a street scene. Technical explanations easily confuse and discourage the average child. Most children, even in the upper grades, will be satisfied if they learn how to make houses and telephone poles stand up by keeping the "up and down" lines straight with the edge of the paper. The idea of making the far corner look smaller than the near corner also may help. However, give help only if it is sought. Avoid imposing adult observations upon children.

CONSTRUCTION OF DIORAMAS BY CHILDREN

Children of the upper elementary grades enjoy experimenting with dioramas to express understandings they have developed in social studies, science, literature, and other areas. Their natural joy in creating miniature models and settings will motivate extensive investigation, research, and learning.

Here are some points to keep in mind as you work with upper-grade children in making dioramas:

1. Be on the alert for such misconceptions as this: "All American Indians built pueblos because we made a diorama of an Indian pueblo."
2. Help children to avoid this kind of stereotyped idea: "All people in Holland wear wooden shoes," or "All Mexican boys have donkeys and spend most of their time sleeping."
3. Help children to understand the more important functions of group living and to avoid spending too much time on the more spectacular phases. The bull fight is a part of Mexican life, but the colorful activities of the market place hold more educational possibilities for understanding Mexican people. Piracy played an exciting role in early American shipping history, but so did the Clipper trade with China, and so did the whaling industry. Children usually

understand and remember the spectacular without having it stressed.

4. Help children to think of and to use authentic materials for construction whenever possible. Branches of trees make "authentic" logs for a cabin, or for a lumbering scene. Why bother to roll brown paper logs? The pioneer mother wore calico prints. Why dress her in rayon?

5. Help children to make their own authentic materials for a part of the diorama. Making miniature adobe bricks for a California mission wall extends the learning possibilities of the activity. It leads to an appreciation of the difficulties encountered in a handcraft age and to an understanding of how the environment is adapted to meet human needs.

6. Have samples of authentic materials available for children to handle. This will help them to have some basis for their choice of substitute materials. A small sample of buckskin might help children to decide on soft brown cotton cloth for Daniel Boone's costume. And a sample of rawhide might suggest that the hides the Mission Indians are loading on a miniature carreta should be cut from stiff brown paper rather than from soft brown cloth. To choose good substitute materials requires an understanding of the properties of the authentic material.

7. Be sure to recognize needs for further learning experiences. For example, the making of a diorama showing Latin-American workers may lead to the need for map study and the making of a map by the children. The dioramas of American westward travel may suggest the need to associate events with dates, and the making of a time-line. Dioramas of farms may suggest dramatic play based on farm life, or an excursion to a farm.

Organizing the Group for Work. When children have decided that they want and need to make dioramas, they will probably plan a series of scenes. Whether or not several dioramas may be started at once depends upon your own experience and the experience of the class with group construction. If it is a new experience for both you and the children, it will probably be well to begin with one group working on one diorama. When they have finished, a second group may begin—and so on until the series is finished.

The size of the group will vary with the amount of work that has to be done. Four to eight children make a workable group. Who will be in the group should be based on personal desire. However, be alert to individual needs. Guard against the situation in which any one child persists in performing the activity he does best while he avoids activities in which he has had little experience. Mary's parents have a just complaint if Mary dresses pipe-cleaner dolls all semester. On the other hand, they also have a complaint if Mary is always in a research group and never shares responsibility for making or doing anything with the other children.

The group will probably choose two chairmen, one to report to the class on progress and difficulties, and one to put away or to take out working supplies. The group should sit together, preferably around a table. Research to clarify points and to secure ideas should be carried on by the children before they begin work as well as after the activity gets under way. In addition, when the chairman reports to the class, other members of the class may question or check particular points raised by those working on the diorama.

Division of work on the diorama plays an important part in providing learning experiences. The members of the group who are making the background must consult with the child who is making the floor of the foreground about colors. And they must compare notes with those who are building the log cabin to determine the size of the workshed that is to be painted on the background. Time should be taken for this discussion within the committee at the beginning and end of each period. Sit with the group during these planning sessions. You can provide real guidance if you are on hand when the children become aware of their immediate needs.

You will want to help the entire class from time to time, especially if other committees are at work in making dioramas. Guidance on how to use the mitre box, how to mix colors, how to fasten button-mold wheels to an axle, and how to make a

highway climb uphill, will be welcomed by most children. In some instances, other children can demonstrate "how to do it."

Evaluation of Dioramas. As the children plan to make dioramas, they will establish standards related to their purposes. From time to time, as the construction group reports progress, the entire class will evaluate and make further suggestions. Here are some questions to be considered:

1. Does the diorama tell the story we want it to tell? (Educational value.)
2. Did the group use correct information? (Authenticity.) Is that the way people dressed? Is that the way things were made? Are people doing real things? Are the materials real, or do they look real? Is that the kind of tree, shrub, or scenery, that we would expect to find? Can the group give proof from books and other sources?
3. Is this the best way to show what we planned? (Originality.)
4. Are the colors pleasant? (Artistic value.)
5. Is the work neat and strong? (Workmanship.)
6. Did the group care for materials and leave the floor and table in order?
7. Did the group work quietly so that the rest of the class could carry on their work?
8. Was it fun to make?

USE OF DIORAMAS IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

The kind of construction required for the making of a diorama is too detailed, too small, and often too unreal to meet the needs of primary children. Young children like to make things they can use in play. Making a model bridge on which they can run their trucks, laying out an airport where the "voice" in the control tower can direct the landing or take-off of planes, or building a postoffice large enough for the children themselves to use, are construction activities more suitable for the primary grades.

You yourself, however, may want to make a diorama to present certain problem situations to children. For instance, a

scene of a kitchen with pipe-cleaner dolls to represent members of the family is helpful in presenting situations involving problems of health, safety, good manners, family relationships, and ways of helping. By "setting the stage" with the diorama, you can provide motivation for valuable dramatic play in the larger "play-house kitchen," or for reading a story about children helping mother to prepare dinner. A teacher-made diorama of a familiar street provides a backdrop for discussions of community helpers, our part in making our street a good place to live, or where to play safely. Such a diorama and the resulting discussions may stimulate primary children to build a model community, to make the kinds of trucks that go by their houses, to play community helpers, or to carry on other learning experiences.

Summary

The foregoing examples of instructional materials are illustrative of types that have been made and used successfully in many classrooms. Check the references that follow for other examples. Use care in selecting only those materials that fit into your teaching plans. Evaluate their use critically so that you will use only those that make rich contributions to children's learning.

Evaluation of classroom materials, plans, group techniques, children's learning, and other aspects of the elementary-school program must go on continuously. Little improvement in the education of children is possible without a well-developed program of evaluation. The next chapter presents guide-lines that can be used to evaluate children's learning. As you read it, note the specific techniques that you can use in student teaching.

Suggestions for Further Reading

- East, M., *Display for Learning*. New York: The Dryden Press, 1952. Specific suggestions for making and using materials.
- Eckgren, B. L., and V. Fishel, *500 Live Ideas for the Grade Teacher*. Evanston: Row, Peterson & Company, 1952. A handy book of recipes and guides for the making of a variety of materials.

- Grossnickle, F. E., and W. Metzner, *The Use of Audio-Visual Aids in the Teaching of Arithmetic*. New York: Rambler Press, 1950.
- Haas, K. B., and H. Q. Packer, *Preparation and Use of Visual Aids*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1946. Many examples of objects that can be made, with specific directions for making them.
- Kinder, J. S., *Audio-Visual Materials and Techniques*. New York: American Book Company, 1950. Practical guide-lines for making and using all types of audio-visual resources.
- Lemos, J. T., *Planning and Producing Posters*. Worcester, Mass.: Davis Press, 1943. Presents many examples and suggestions for constructing effective posters.
- Russell, D. H., and E. E. Karp, *Reading Aids Through the Grades*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1951. A variety of reading devices are presented; many of them are easy to make.

12

Evaluation of Children's Learning

THERE IS great satisfaction in worthy achievement. Knowing that you have done some task exceptionally well spurs you on to greater accomplishment. When others are able to share in your success, you experience additional feelings of pride. These factors of achievement, motivation, self-appraisal, and group concern for work well done are the bases for adequate appraisal of children's learnings.

How well you are doing as a student teacher is reflected in the evidence that *children* are making desirable growth under your guidance. Student teaching should provide ample opportunity to understand and to use adequate evaluation procedures for each part of the teaching-learning process. How well have children done? How much have they achieved? How can we tell when they have made progress? These are some of the questions that this chapter will help us answer.

EVALUATION DEFINED

The process of determining the amount and quality of growth and achievement based on clearly defined purposes is called evaluation. The term, which is relatively new in educational literature, has been invented to describe a process much broader than mere testing. When you want to evaluate children's learning, there are definite steps that you must take. The most important parts are these:

1. Carefully define the purposes for each phase of teaching.
2. Include all aspects of child growth.

3. Use adequate and valid devices to collect data about pupil growth.
4. Insure rigorous interpretation of data collected.
5. Provide for careful planning and re-teaching based upon the data secured.

The concept of evaluation also includes a very real concern for all the individuals who are integral parts of the teaching-learning process—the pupil, his parents, his teachers and administrators, and the members of his community.

PRINCIPLES FOR GUIDING EVALUATION ACTIVITIES

During recent years, some important principles for evaluating pupil progress have evolved. These guides have been developed by teachers and administrators who have been striving to secure more accurate data on pupil growth based upon well-defined goals. During your student teaching, you will want to study these principles carefully and strive to make continued growth in applying them to your teaching.

1. Evaluation should be based upon a particular set of objectives.
2. Evaluation of all major aspects of child growth and development is necessary.
3. Evaluation should make significant contributions toward the improvement of the school program.
4. Evaluation must be carefully planned and should provide for a continuous program of appraisal.
5. Evaluation should stress the importance of the cooperative participation of all individuals involved in the learning process.
6. Evaluation necessitates the use of many devices and techniques for collecting data about pupil progress.
7. Evaluation requires adequate recording of data about pupils and careful interpretation of these data.
8. Evaluation should stress the importance of group work in a variety of school situations.
9. Evaluation encourages teacher research, experimentation, and growth.

Each of the foregoing principles will be expanded so that you can see its more important applications.

Evaluation should be based upon a particular set of objectives prepared by the school staff and established as the guiding philosophy for all educational experiences. Study the purposes of the training school in which you are working. Your supervising teacher will help you to understand the purposes of the school and will help you to apply these purposes to each class, unit, and daily lesson.

When rigorously applied, this first rule should insure purposeful teaching, appraisal based upon specific objectives, and a clearer understanding of instructional practices by pupils, teachers, and parents.

One school that was interested in building patterns of democratic behavior appropriate to the maturity of each child defined democratic living as follows: ¹

1. Freedom of expression and choice.
2. Responsibility for carrying out choices.
3. Social concern.
4. Active participation in the work and play of the group.
5. Acting only on the basis of responsible thinking.
6. Sharing and cooperating.
7. Respecting the right, property, and opinions of others.

Student teachers working at this school should be able to direct pupil growth toward this larger objective in the daily activities of their classrooms. For example, a fifth-grade teacher working with students on the unit, "Pioneer Life Centered in Boonesborough," could easily help students achieve more democratic living in his classroom by providing some of these experiences: ²

¹ Adapted from "Purposes of the University Elementary School, University of California, Los Angeles" (Mimeographed). Edited by Corrine Seeds, 1952, p. 2.

² Adapted from a unit by Robert Reynolds, "Pioneer Life Centered in Boonesborough." University Elementary School, University of California, Los Angeles (Mimeographed), 1949, pp. 1 f.

1. Providing many opportunities for group interaction with the total environment.
2. Giving each child a chance to excel in some part of the activity through play, construction, sharing information found by research, and creative expression.
3. Establishing as closely as possible a true-life situation where each child can have an opportunity to demonstrate and develop to his best ability and to achieve the needed recognition from the group.
4. Helping children develop enthusiasm for the traditions and democratic spirit of America as well as fine and abiding attitudes toward their own land.

The best and most valid evaluation procedures must be based upon a basic philosophy of education that has been carefully defined by a particular group of teachers for a particular school system and for a particular group of students.

Evaluation of all major aspects of child growth and development is necessary. A significant amount of information has been collected about the way children grow, develop, and learn. Because of the abundance of data now available, we know that teachers and parents must be more concerned with the total growth of children. The physical, emotional, intellectual, social, spiritual, and aesthetic aspects of growth are all interrelated. In fact, the very heart of a democratic philosophy of education is involved in the point of view that each child must be given the opportunity to grow and develop to his optimum.

One child may be limited in his capacity to work with abstract problems (mathematics). But this same child may be able to do surprisingly well in art, music, crafts, or physical education. In an exhibition given between the games of a double-header baseball game, some elementary-school boys were displaying their skill in in-field practice. The catcher was the most outstanding boy and easily captured the attention and the applause of the large audience. He won the coveted prize—a new bicycle. Yet the right side of his body was crippled. He caught the ball with

his left hand, pulled off the glove with a withered right hand, and then threw with his left hand. His skill, courage, and spirit were an inspiration to all who saw him. The young man directing this playground group was well aware of the importance of helping each child grow to his optimum.

This emphasis upon the "whole individual" necessitates adequate devices for measurement in all aspects of child growth and development. The kinds of measurement devices available will be discussed later.

Evaluation should make significant contributions toward the improvement of the school program. Understanding the importance of evaluating the total growth of each individual is not enough. There must be a genuine concern for adjusting the school program to enable boys and girls to have the types of experiences necessary for desirable growth. A rigid curriculum would make it impossible to carry out the first principle of evaluation. As a student teacher, you may find that the program in your school is rather fixed and inflexible. But you will have to do the best you can and look forward to the time when you will be a member of a school staff where you can take an active part in the establishment of a more desirable school program.

Another important aspect of this principle is a genuine concern for checking the effectiveness of the school program. Evaluation procedures will help to show places where improvements are necessary. Teaching procedures that have been highly successful should be continued. Weaknesses should be studied and corrected by the principal and his staff. Through these procedures, curriculum improvement will be a continuous part of each teacher's job. As a student teacher, you will want to search for desirable teaching procedures. You should be equally diligent in your search for procedures that are not desirable and that should be corrected. Your growth and effectiveness as a teacher depend upon this type of critical evaluation.

Evaluation must be carefully planned and should provide for a continuous program of appraisal. Your supervising teacher will help you to plan carefully for every lesson. He will also pro-

vide adequate opportunity for the evaluation of the larger unit or the semester's work. When you do not plan in advance for evaluation, you are likely to overlook some important aspects. Most superior supervising teachers think of evaluation as an important part of every teaching experience.

Two student teachers prepared a chart to help in the pre-planning of evaluation procedures for a second-grade unit on milk production. These student teachers gained considerable understanding of the importance of evaluation while preparing this chart. First, they carefully defined each of their objectives in terms of behaviors they were seeking to develop in the children they were to teach. Next, they thought about the evaluation devices that could be used to secure objective data on pupil growth in each objective. Lastly, they planned for evaluation throughout the duration of the unit. The chart they developed appears on page 350.

Evaluation should stress the importance of the cooperative participation of all individuals involved in the learning process. All interested persons must have a part in establishing and applying evaluation criteria. There must be a common basis for evaluation procedures. Parents, principal, supervising teachers, student teachers, and pupils need to understand this basis. Moreover, they must have an opportunity to participate in the evaluation program in the ways most appropriate to their role in the school program.

In your student teaching, you should have an opportunity to work with parents in appraising pupil growth and in directing future learning experiences that will insure the most desirable guidance both in the home and in the school. One school system assists student teachers by preparing them to help with parent-teacher conferences. Another school system has planned regular meetings to help parents understand the methods and instructional materials used for each main subject taught. Two major issues are involved in these examples. First, the teacher must work closely with the parents to help them understand the progress that their child is making and to accept the responsibility

for giving assistance and encouragement at home that will supplement the work of the teacher. Second, the school and the home must have a common understanding of the importance of each school subject and must interpret and evaluate the results of good teaching in light of the purposes that have been established for each subject.

Pupils themselves play an important function in cooperative evaluation. When the goals for teaching and learning are clearly defined, pupils may be guided into active participation in the following ways:

1. Each pupil should accept purposes vital to himself for each learning situation. This procedure helps motivate the learner. Success and failure will help to determine the aspiration level and establishment of future goals.
2. The pupil is helpful in defining his purposes in terms of his own behavioral changes.
3. Pupils are helpful in suggesting appropriate experiences that will help them achieve their purposes.
4. The collection of information to show pupil growth should be a cooperative enterprise. Pupils can assist in determining adequate types of appraisal too.
5. Keeping accurate records of pupil growth and progress is a responsibility of both teacher and pupil. Pupil participation insures concern for continued progress.
6. Interpreting evaluation data in light of the goals accepted by the pupil is an excellent procedure.

You can guide children to assume responsibilities in these areas at each grade level. Through pupil-teacher planning, individual conferences, and careful follow-up on all individual and group planning, pupils can assume more and more of these tasks and at higher levels of performance.

Two examples of pupil participation in evaluation of recreational reading activities are given below. The devices were prepared cooperatively by teachers and pupils.⁴

⁴ Contributed by Mrs. Mary Dempsey Van Duzer, Coordinator of Student Teaching, Brockton Avenue Elementary School, Los Angeles.

WHO HAS READ "TEXAS PETE"?

- | | |
|-------------|-------------|
| 1. Susan | 10. Diane |
| 2. Pamela | 11. Diana |
| 3. Joanne | 12. Armanda |
| 4. Randy | 13. Charles |
| 5. Marilyn | 14. George |
| 6. Larry | 15. Beverly |
| 7. Kathleen | 16. Susu |
| 8. Richard | 17. Kenny |
| 9. Karen | 18. Tommy |

Children were motivated to read "Texas Pete" through an informal report on the book by the teacher and a child. The child told his classmates a few interesting things about the book and showed them some of the pictures. Informal book reports of this sort motivate individual children to share their experiences

ORAL BOOK REPORTS

1. Be well prepared.
2. Tell the name of the story and the author.
3. Speak slowly and clearly.
4. You may show one or two pictures.
5. Tell a little portion of the story.
6. Stop at the climax.
7. You may read a favorite part.
8. Use expression.
9. Have places marked.
10. Stand straight.
11. Wait until the speaker has finished before you raise your hand.
12. Avoid saying "and so," "and a," "well a."

with others and motivate the other children to read the books for themselves.⁴

Evaluation necessitates the use of many devices and techniques for collecting data about pupil progress. Recognize the importance of having a set of objectives to guide your instructional efforts. These objectives should also be understood by parents, pupils, and administrators. You must take into account all observable changes in the pupils, both in mastery of subject matter and in development of mental processes. In your selection and use of appropriate evaluation devices, you will be guided by several factors:

1. Which objective is to be evaluated?
2. Which device is best suited to evaluate the objective?
 - (a) Language products, verbal or mathematical.
 - (b) Non-language products.
 - (c) Direct observation or performance tests.
3. Should you construct the device yourself or should you use a standardized test?

A brief discussion of teacher-made tests and standardized tests will help you answer these questions.

Teacher-made Tests. Properly prepared and carefully administered, teacher-made tests are the most valid of all tests. ("Valid" means that the test really measures what it purports to measure.) These tests cover the teacher's objectives best. They yield greater benefits to the teacher, and they are best for continuous evaluation of achievement throughout the semester and year. Supervising teachers will give you as much assistance as they can during the brief period of time that you are doing student teaching with them. However, several years of working with a variety of test items will be necessary before you can expect to develop any great amount of proficiency.

There are a few basic steps to take in preparing a teacher-made test. First, make a table of specifications indicating the im-

⁴ Prepared by Miss Marjorie Hansen, Fourth-grade teacher, Warner Avenue Elementary School, Los Angeles City.

portance attached to each main instructional objective. Second, prepare individual test items to correspond with specific items in the table of specifications. Third, arrange the test items so that the test can be taken easily and scored accurately.

The more common types of teacher-made tests used to measure achievement in school subjects are: ⁵

1. Essay
2. Recall
 - (a) Simple recall
 - (b) Completion
3. Recognition
 - (a) True-false
 - (b) Multiple-choice
 - (c) Matching
4. Situation and problem-solving

Standardized Achievement Tests. These tests are prepared by test experts and have carefully worked-out norms. They are more technically refined than teacher-made tests. They should be selected for the purpose of measuring pupil achievement toward the objectives established for a school system or for a particular grade level. The objectives must not be compromised to meet the contents of the standardized test. Adjustments should be made wherever the tests do not cover instructional objectives. Tests should be carefully selected on the basis of acceptable criteria.

The basic criteria for the selection of standardized tests are those that apply to most evaluation devices. They are: validity, reliability, administrability, and interpretability.

Our discussion has been confined so far to the selection, preparation, and use of tests to evaluate achievement in school subjects. If all outcomes are to be appraised adequately, many different instruments and techniques should be used. A list of devices

⁵ See H. H. Remmers and N. L. Gage, *Educational Measurement and Evaluation*, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943, pp. 146-192. See also *Evaluating Pupil Progress*, California State Department of Education, Sacramento, 1952, pp. 10-39.

used in many school systems has been prepared by Michaelis:⁶

Directed observation	Logs	Case studies
Informal observation	Diaries	Activity records
Group discussions	Autobiographies	Recordings
Group interviews	Scrapbooks	Photographs
Individual interviews	Collections	Movies
Case conferences	Samples of work	Stenographic reports
Check lists	Teacher-made tests	Cumulative records
Rating scales	Group-made tests	Pupil graphs
Inventories	Standardized tests	Profiles
Questionnaires	Sociometric tests	Sociograms
Charts	Anecdotal records	Flow of discussion charts
Evaluative criteria	Behavior journals	

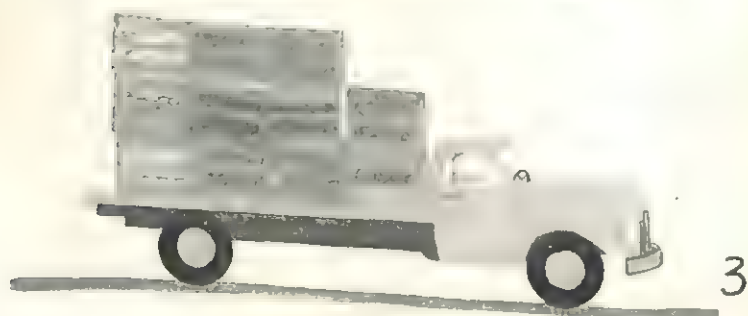
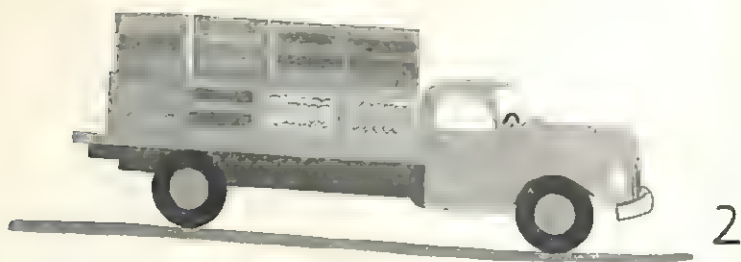
You will recognize the importance of using a number of devices to collect accurate information about the total growth of pupils you are teaching. You will also want to become more skillful in the selection of the most appropriate devices to measure growth in the main instructional objectives.

Evaluation should stress the importance of group work in a variety of school situations. As a student teacher, you are a group leader. Classes are organized on the basis of groups. The entire class may work together on such activities as music, discussions, rhythms, and construction. At other times, the class may be organized into two or three small groups. For example, the reading period has to be carefully planned so that children will have desirable experiences in each phase of the work. You will often be working with eight or ten pupils at the reading center. One group of children may be doing seat-work. Still another group may be participating in free-time activities, such as painting or recreational reading.

Good group work has to be directed, encouraged, and developed. Although space is not available for a detailed discussion of the responsibilities you must assume in directing group work, the essential factors for studying group work can be listed. You

⁶ John U. Michaelis, *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950, pp. 374-402.

Who has the most crates?



Charts can be used in the evaluation of learning.

Los Angeles

must strive to know more about these aspects of group work: ⁷

1. How are the goals of a group established?
2. How does interaction operate?
3. How will the group respond to various situations, people, ideas?
4. How can we study group structure and interaction?
5. How can we guide group work, goal-setting, goal-seeking behavior, and group adjustment?

Evaluation of group work must be based upon the purposes established for happy and effective group living. We are interested in the growth of pupils in their ability to: direct conduct toward worthy ends; understand the importance of human relationships; enjoy many types of aesthetic experiences; and use the tools of learning more effectively in solving their problems.

Try to learn more about establishing plans, building class standards, establishing standards for the use of time and materials, regulating discussions, and setting up standards for work periods. Help children to evaluate group work by establishing these standards cooperatively.⁸ Then help pupils evaluate individual and group growth in terms of these standards. On the next page are some standards formulated by one group of children for a successful work period in multi-text reading.⁹

One second-grade teacher helped her children to establish standards for group work. After the standards were agreed upon, they were written on charts and displayed at appropriate times throughout the semester. Clever devices were used to motivate children to use these standards. Also, these devices served as a group record of progress in achieving the purposes

⁷ For detailed discussions of each of these basic points see Ruth Cunningham and Associates, *Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls*. New York: Bureau of Publications Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951, pp. 1-12.

⁸ For helpful suggestions on group work, see John A. Hockett and E. W. Jacobsen, *Modern Practices in the Elementary School*. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1943, pp. 18-63.

⁹ Prepared under the direction of Mrs. Ada Mermer, Sixth-grade teacher, Warner Avenue School, Los Angeles City Schools.

HOW WE FIND OUR INFORMATION

1. We select a reference book.
2. We locate our information by:
 - a. Using the index.
 - b. Using the table of contents.
 - c. Scanning (skimming).
3. We read to answer our questions.
4. When we find an answer to a problem, we take notes in the following form:

Author _____ Title _____ Date _____

Question _____ Page ____ Paragraph ____

Brief notes, using key word.

5. We share our information with the class.
 - a. We call on each other.
 - b. We choose people who have not spoken.
 - c. We wait our turn.
 - d. We settle disagreements by finding proof.
6. We organize the material we have shared.

for the particular group activity. Two standards for group work are shown below.¹⁰

STANDARDS FOR PHYSICAL EDUCATION

1. We walk to our play area.
2. We follow the rules of the game.
3. We play fairly.
4. We are good sports.

¹⁰ Standards and devices were prepared by Mrs. Jo Stanchfield, Brockton Elementary School, Los Angeles City Schools, under the direction of Mrs. Mary Dempsey Van Duzer, Coordinator of Student Teaching, University of California.

ROOM STANDARDS (Groups 1, 2, 3)

1. We help each other.
2. We raise our hands before talking.
3. We take turns.
4. We talk softly and walk quietly.
5. We look and listen.
6. We keep hands to ourselves.

Evaluation requires adequate recording and careful interpretation of data about pupils. Each school system will have some organized plan for keeping cumulative records of test results and samples of work, such as handwriting, spelling, art, and arithmetic. Some teachers keep individual folders so that children may file samples of their work regularly. These same folders are used by teachers for parent conferences to discuss progress made during the last reporting period.

Cumulative records are usually kept in the principal's office. Some schools, however, have purchased small metal file boxes for filing individual record folders, including the cumulative record card. These files can easily be taken to the teacher's room, locked while not being used, and then returned at the end of the day to the office vault or storage room. Your supervising teacher will help you to use these records carefully. At first, you will need some specific information about the whole class. A class analysis showing such factors as intelligence scores, achievement in school subjects, and social adjustment may be helpful to you in grouping the class for reading and other class activities. Here are a few specific suggestions for recording data about pupils and for using this information to help make classroom instruction more successful:

1. Appraising pupil growth in any subject is best achieved by coordinating the information from all sources of evaluation. Each

device gives information that supplements evidence derived from other sources.

2. Cumulative record cards *should be used* and not stored to collect dust in the principal's office. You can use these records to check on progress toward achieving class goals. Study the individual growth patterns to discover needed instructional improvements.

3. Record data accurately and make sure that it is objective.

4. Evaluation should be periodic and continuous. Periodic appraisals will show progress toward the achievement of larger instructional goals. Day-by-day evaluation aids in adjusting instruction to individual needs.

5. Give adequate consideration to materials placed in individual record folders. Periodically, several teachers and the principal may wish to go over these folders to take out bulky and unnecessary papers. Suggestions for improvement of recording procedures should be made during these reviews.

Evaluation encourages teacher research, experimentation, and growth. Teachers who understand evaluation procedures are in an excellent position to think about participating in educational research. There are several reasons for this assumption. First, many so-called "intangibles" can be appraised once they have been carefully defined as behaviors. Then pupil growth can be measured in terms of these behaviors. This process has encouraged many teachers to direct student growth in the areas of attitudes, appreciations, and habits. Second, evaluation emphasizes validity of measurement based upon carefully defined instructional objectives. Obviously, classroom teachers—who constitute the front line of educational advancement—must participate in study and research. Third, since numerous methods for securing accurate data are becoming available, teacher research is more important now than at any other period of our educational history. Lastly, educational leaders are recognizing the importance of research that will help them to substantiate the fact that modern instructional methods are producing better and more carefully prepared citizens. They are also aware of the need for continuous research to blaze the way for sound educa-

tional advancement. Under such conditions, they will naturally seek to employ teachers who are familiar with research and who are willing to do research in their classrooms.

The concern for clarification of objectives and the careful pursuit of better ways to achieve these objectives are important to your growth as a teacher. In your student teaching, you will have an opportunity to engage in this evaluative process and to become a better teacher in the process. Failure to participate in this aspect of evaluation constitutes one of the major differences between a mediocre teacher and a strong teacher. Seek advice and assistance from your supervising teacher. You will have more expert guidance while you are a student teacher than you will have at any other time in your teaching career. Make the most of this opportunity for personal growth!

SUGGESTED DEVICES FOR STUDENT TEACHERS

A few basic devices constitute the core of a beginning program of evaluation for student teachers. Brief discussions of the following will be given:

1. Physical aspects of pupil growth.
2. Adjustment.
3. Product and procedure evaluation.
4. General mental abilities.
5. Special abilities.
6. Attitudes.
7. Interests.
8. Understanding children.

Physical Aspects and Their Evaluation. Be aware of the guidance you can give children in the area of physical growth and health instruction. Start out by gathering adequate data on the physical aspects of pupil growth. A child's physical well-being will influence his ability to acquire new learnings. The type of educational program in which a child will succeed is determined in part by his physical capacity. The amount of work that a child

will be able to do is likewise greatly influenced by these physical aspects of pupil growth. The kinds of adjustments you may have to make to provide for individual differences in physical growth are:

1. Decreasing the length of the program or period.
2. Limiting physical activity or play activity.
3. Using a convalescent room for rest and relaxation.
4. Increasing the length of the noon hour.
5. Providing a mid-morning "snack."
6. Providing for correction of physical defects.
7. Insuring a systematic health inspection.
8. Adjusting the classroom for the physically handicapped.

Adjustment Evaluation. Pupils often have to face situations that involve elements of stress or strain. Each child will possess certain individual resources (abilities, skills, and attitudes) that will help or hinder him in adjusting to each new stress. You must be vitally concerned with this process of adjustment. You will want to help children solve the problems faced in each grade. There is an appropriate adjustment for each level of development. Good adjustment in the first grade may be poor adjustment in the third or fourth grade. Children can be helped to meet stresses and strains as they occur in school work and to meet these problems on a higher level each time. This *growing up* is a steady advance from the dependence of small children to the independence and self-reliance of adults.¹¹

Personality underlies adjustment. Each child brings his own personality—his reactions, his assets, his liabilities, his defects—to help him with each adjustment. How well the child adjusts depends upon several factors: his capacities, past successes or failures, and the intensity of social pressures. Actually, you have a chance to help boys and girls develop their personalities and character. The guidance you give to children in helping them

¹¹ For more detailed discussion of adjustment, see John E. Anderson, *The Psychology of Development and Personal Adjustment*, pp. 395-480. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1942.

make more satisfactory adjustments will not only influence their personal adjustments, but it will also help to create within them real concern and sympathy for the difficulties of others.

Evaluating pupil adjustment is not easy. At first, you will probably want to confine much of your efforts to understanding the fundamental motives that influence child behavior. You will want to become a student of behavior problems so that you can distinguish the most important manifestations of maladjustment. Your study of specific types of behavior should include:

1. Antisocial children.
2. The very quiet "model child."
3. Emotionally unstable children.
4. Nervous children.
5. The defensive individual.
6. The evasive and alibi-ing child.

A practical approach is to use observational records to help diagnose the difficulties of particularly noticeable cases. The timid and withdrawing child is a good example. Try these techniques:

1. Teach skills to the timid child before they are presented to the group.
2. Develop a consistency in routines so that the shy child's security in school is increased.
3. Show appreciation for accomplishments.
4. Convey expressions of affection directly and privately so that there is no confusion or embarrassment.
5. Direct the approval of the group toward the timid child's efforts whenever possible.
6. Plan cooperative tasks for the nonparticipating child.
7. On certain days, group choices may be limited to timid, unaggressive children.
8. Plan the environment of the classroom so that it is rich in accessory materials to suggest ideas for participation.¹²

¹² For additional suggestions, see Helen Heffernan, *Guiding the Young Child*, pp. 203 ff. Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1951.

Product Evaluation. Short-answer tests are not adequate for evaluating the objectives of instruction that center around the making of a product. Product evaluation may be of a notebook, art work, ceramics, models, construction projects in social studies, or clothing projects. Product-evaluation devices have two parts: (1) the analysis of the product into specific features, and (2) the provision for various levels of quality for scoring each feature. You may not wish to use this type of detailed procedure. You may use group evaluation of products and also child-teacher discussion and evaluation as the product is being prepared. Suggestions for individual and group evaluation of projects or products are:

1. Let the child present his project—ship, airplane, bowl, or picture—to the group, asking them for help on some problem. Children will often suggest improvements that can be made. With careful guidance, they will make constructive criticisms and will give sincere praise for work well done according to their standards.

2. Children's projects are expressions of their own ideas and are interpretations of their environment. They help you see certain abilities, attitudes, and personality development. Help children to recognize creativeness at each pupil's level of development.

3. The class may prepare a check list for helpers in the cafeteria. They prepare a list of items under such headings as personal appearance, table service, clearing tables, and helpfulness to others. Values may be placed upon each item listed.

4. Classroom charts for diagnosing faults in handwriting may be used to help individual students appraise their work. The main features covered are uniformity of slant, alignment, quality of line, letter formation, and spacing.¹³

The group may prepare a chart describing the steps to take in making some project like adobe brick for a Mexican home. Later smaller groups can try out the suggested steps and can evaluate the finished product.

¹³ One excellent chart, "Handwriting Faults and How To Correct Them," is published by Zaner-Bloser Company, Columbus 8, Ohio.

MAKING ADOBE BRICKS

We wash the form with water so the bricks will not stick.

We mix our dirt and straw thoroughly.

We press the mud into the forms firmly.

We set the bricks in the sun until almost dry.

We stand the bricks on edge to finish drying.

5. Appropriate check lists may be developed for laboratory products or procedures. Students can help prepare a list of procedures used in preparing an Indian bowl for firing, or they may wish to prepare a check list for skills needed in using a microscope.



University Elementary School
University of California at Los Angeles

Children plan and carry out the activity, and evaluate the finished product (adobe bricks).

You will have many opportunities to develop skill in appraising the work done by pupils as they undertake various projects and products in social studies, science, art, and in free-time activities.

Appraising General Mental Abilities. Intelligence tests are classified as individual or group, according to whether they are given to one child or to several children at a time. Tests of the Binet type, involving carefully prepared and standardized test items, are individual scales. Examples of group intelligence tests are the Otis Test of Mental Ability, California Aptitude, and American Council on Education Psychological Examination. Both types of test have specific uses and are necessary in every school. The most common uses made of intelligence tests are:

1. Guidance of individual learning and achievement based upon ability.
2. Studying class groupings and achievement based upon abilities.
3. Planning educational programs to meet needs of children based upon abilities.
4. Selecting curricular offerings.
5. Providing guidance for individuals.
6. Providing vocational guidance.
7. Analyzing ethnic groups.
8. Dealing with delinquent and handicapped children in courts and guidance centers.

After you have made a careful study of the ways in which intelligence tests are prepared, standardized, and used, you will have little doubt about which type to use—teacher-made or standardized. Obviously, locally prepared tests cannot compete with standardized tests that are based on many years of well-financed research. Your greatest task in dealing with this aspect of evaluation is to gain experience in observing the use your supervising teacher makes of intelligence-test results. Suggestions to follow in the interpretation of intelligence-test results are:

1. Study carefully the test used to predict a child's mental ability. If you have not taken a course in testing and evaluation, you should do so at your earliest opportunity. Each intelligence test yields certain results. You should know what these results are.

2. Wherever possible, find out whether several tests have been given. But be careful about comparing various scores without understanding the tests and the conditions under which they were administered.

3. Remember that other factors must be considered along with intelligence scores—motivation (frustration), environment (nutrition, stimulation), constitutional factors (organic), and heredity.

4. Be reserved in your judgments about the very high or the very low. Each child needs guidance in using his abilities.

5. Watch for special mental abilities exhibited in different subjects and activities.

6. Remember that intelligence tests are really based upon "operational definitions of intelligence." An intelligent child under certain conditions and in a particular culture will respond in certain ways to certain stimuli. Can you see good cause for variations and deviations?

7. Intelligence-test scores are but one part of the over-all program of evaluation and guidance. Observations of pupil behavior, results obtained from achievement tests, and other data recorded on the cumulative record card are all needed to help teachers direct the learning experiences of children.

Attitude Evaluation. The importance of desirable attitudes to learning activities has been well established. Attitudes may be defined as feelings for or against something. This definition emphasizes the independence of attitudes from rational and intellectual processes. Attitudes are closely tied to emotions, are directed toward some object, situation, or stimulus, and most important, are acquired or learned.

Techniques for evaluating attitudes are similar to those used for evaluating adjustment. They include self-inventories, rating scales, questionnaires, tests of conduct, and anecdotal records.

Direct observation of pupil behavior is a good starting point for evaluating attitude changes. The other techniques men-

tioned may be used after skill has been developed in teaching and in observing pupil growth in a variety of situations. Anecdotal records may be used to record behavior in a variety of classroom and extra-classroom situations. First, typical behavior must be accurately identified, and then the records themselves must be carefully analyzed. Suggestions for the use of anecdotal records should be closely adhered to.

Social attitudes such as open-mindedness, concern for others, responsibility, and cooperativeness have been defined in terms of behaviors that can be observed and recorded for individual guidance or for classroom discussion.

Individuals who are *open-minded* in group work:

1. Entertain, think about, explore, and use new ideas.
2. Sense and state practical problems.
3. Accept help and use improved ways of working.
4. Base judgment on all pertinent facts.
5. Investigate sources of information and withhold conclusions.
6. Have courage to attack new problems.
7. Gain insight into emotion as a factor in making decisions.
8. Appraise group and individual action in order to improve group processes.¹⁴

In your student teaching, do not overlook the educational and vocational aspects of attitudes. Be aware of your own attitudes toward the subjects you are teaching. Many of your attitudes will be "caught" by your students. In one study of the attitudes of prospective teachers toward arithmetic, it was discovered that a surprisingly large number of students who were planning to teach in the elementary school had very unfavorable attitudes.¹⁵

Interest Evaluation. Interests are indispensable aids in learning. Through interests, pupils are motivated to work, to learn, and to grow toward adulthood. In a sense, interests are reflectors

¹⁴ John U. Michaelis, *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*, p. 196. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950.

¹⁵ W. H. Dutton, "Attitudes of Prospective Teachers Toward Arithmetic," *Elementary School Journal*, October 1951, pp. 85-90.

of personality. They are as changeable as the age level that supports them. The child's community and his peers influence the quality and the nature of his interests.

Pupil interests are most commonly measured by means of inventories very similar to adjustment and attitude inventories. Pupils are asked to respond to test items in accordance with their



University of Minnesota News Service

Note evidences of growth as children express themselves creatively.

feelings of acceptance or rejection. Careful consideration must be given to (1) the pupil's understanding and his control of vocabulary and (2) the intellectual honesty of his responses. Because interests change so rapidly in the elementary-school grades, constant observation must be made of pupil behavior. A child's interests become obvious in the activities chosen by him during free time and during work periods. Uses that can be made of data pertaining to children's interests are:

1. Helping the teacher select appropriate instructional materials for the class and for individuals.
2. Understanding individual growth and progress—interests are indicators of maturity.
3. Assisting students in educational and vocational planning.
4. Making students more self-directive by encouraging them to make their own decisions.
5. Providing clues to personal and social adjustment.
6. Conferring with parents in reporting pupil progress—aiding with home interests.
7. Enabling students to participate in worth-while recreational and free-time activities.

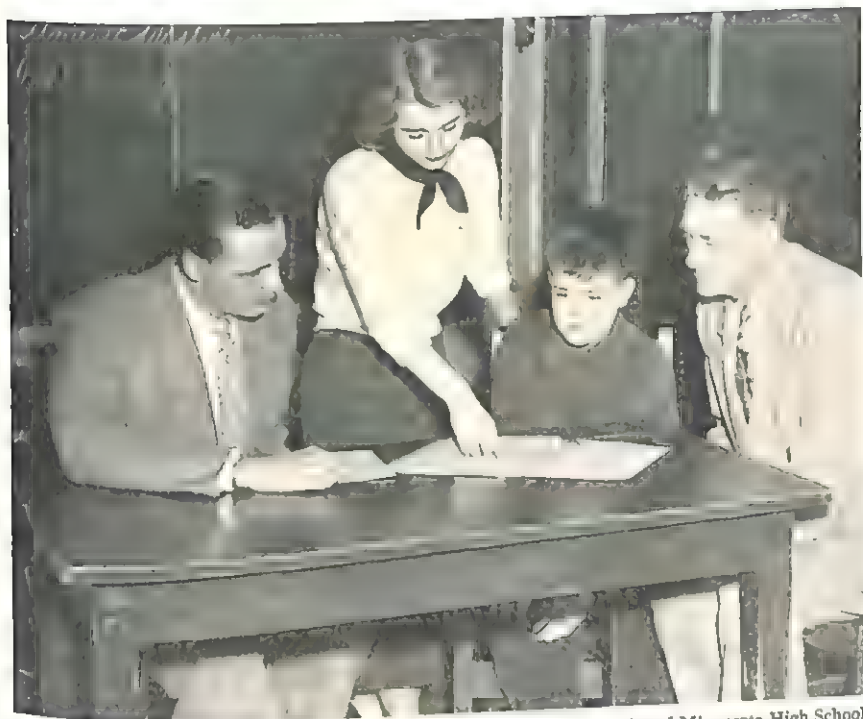
REPORTING PUPIL PROGRESS

Some system of reporting pupil progress is necessary in every elementary school. The major purposes of reporting are:

1. To secure parent cooperation and understanding of the instructional goals.
2. To inform parents of their child's improvement and growth in school work.
3. To motivate children to do better work.
4. To assist pupils in self-evaluation.
5. To provide a permanent record of pupil progress in school.

Increased attention has been given to reporting procedures during recent years. This interest has sprung from the attempts of teachers and administrators to report on a much wider range

of pupil progress. Teachers have wished to report pupil achievement not only in academic subjects but also in personality development and social adjustment. Letter grades—A, B, C, and D—are not satisfactory in attempts to describe the quality of



University of Minnesota High School

You will need accurate information in reporting to parents.

growth in most areas of a child's progress in school. Two modern reporting systems will be described briefly.

First, we shall outline the system used in the University Elementary School, University of California, Los Angeles:

1. A group conference is held by each teacher with parents and guardians of the children in her classroom to interpret the program for the semester.
2. Additional all-school parent meetings are held regularly to discuss school subjects and to interpret school policies.
3. One parent-teacher conference is held for each child in every

grade near the end of the semester. These conferences are scheduled and are mandatory.

4. Parents are encouraged to visit their child's classroom at least once during the semester. They may come as often as they wish.

5. A culmination program is held in every grade at the close of the semester to conclude the classwork on their social studies unit. This provides an incentive for pupil work during the semester and helps to interpret the work of the school to the parents.

6. Guidance conferences involving the school counselor, the parents, and the teacher are held for difficult adjustment or learning cases whenever necessary.

7. Progress records are prepared by the training teachers to help them with parent conferences and to insure adequate permanent records for the cumulative folders. (See progress report that follows.)

University of California, Los Angeles
University Elementary School

PROGRESS RECORD OF JILL

Pupil Jill X Group A-3 Date of Birth _____
Term beginning Sept. 18, 19— Term ending Jan. 24, 19—

I. HEALTH

Jill has had several colds this year, but is otherwise a healthy, active child. She enjoys sports and participates in group games or plays on the equipment at recess time. Jill has excellent muscular coordination. Her contributions to creative rhythms have been beautiful. Jill has much success in construction. She complains of headaches now and then, but dislikes staying home from school.

II. DISPOSITION

Her mother says she used to develop convenient "aches and pains" in order to stay home from school. Jill has had no such ailment this semester. Jill has developed a competitive, defensive attitude in order to hold her own with her brothers at home. Her biggest problem was to overcome the temptation to speak sarcastically. She is overcoming this difficulty and has been very cooperative. Jill has many friends, though she does

not take many children into her confidence. She has a tendency to dramatize events and find a tragic element in them. She declared to her mother one evening that life was really too hard, but she just couldn't tell her any more about it, then.

III. INTERESTS

Jill has shown great interest in painting, in which she has shown a very mature sense of color and design. She has expressed a desire to be an artist, since, "I'm really so good in art." She has found all of our activities highly interesting and has said, "This is the best school in the world," frequently.

IV. METHODS OF WORK

Jill has very fine work habits. She plans her work carefully and consistently finishes her work. She is proud of careful work and sets her standards high enough.

V. ACHIEVEMENT

Jill has made her greatest contribution in art and creative writing. Her dramatic play is excellent and shows a deep understanding of boats and their activities. She is making fine progress in reading. She needs to study her spelling.

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS

To home: Help Jill feel important in the family group in situations where she need not compete.

To School: Encourage Jill to choose easy, interesting books for free reading.

VII. HOME REACTIONS

Mr. and Mrs. X are both very cooperative; Mrs. X visits frequently and has made many contributions to our program. Mrs. X is very much pleased with Jill's adjustment at school. She is concerned about Jill's antagonism toward her older brother, and is surprised that Jill is polite with the children at school.

Here is the reporting policy that has been established by the Inglewood City Schools, Inglewood, California: ¹⁶

¹⁶ Adapted from the pamphlet, *Reporting to Parents in the Inglewood City Schools*, September 1950. With the assistance of Al Grant, Curriculum Director.

- | | |
|----------------------|---|
| <i>First Report</i> | 1. A group conference is held for parents and guardians of children in each grade during the first month of school to interpret the program for the year. |
| <i>Second Report</i> | 2. Individual conferences are held by teachers with parents or guardians of each child. This reporting period is scheduled for a ten-day period preceding Thanksgiving. |
| <i>Third Report</i> | 3. A report form is sent home about March 15. Parent conferences may be held when, in the opinion of the teacher or parent, it seems necessary. |
| <i>Fourth Report</i> | 4. The same report form is sent home and the insert sheet returned during the last week of school. |
| | 5. Provisions are made for special conferences for parents whose children have to enter school late. |

Student teachers should begin to learn the most important skills necessary for successful parent-teacher conferences. Your supervising teacher may provide opportunities for you to take part in conferences with parents. Certainly you should have contact with parents during the semester in open-house meetings, school programs, and Parent-Teacher Association meetings. These suggestions for parent conferences may help you:

1. Let parents know what you would like to achieve during the conference.
2. Cultivate a relationship of friendliness and helpfulness.
3. Don't try to cover too much. Each parent thinks in terms of his own experiences.
4. Try not to "out-talk" a parent.
5. Listen to what the parent has to say. Try to understand his point of view.
6. Avoid discussing other children and making comparisons with brother or sister.
7. Avoid arguments. Hear criticisms objectively and make or receive suggestions for solutions.
8. Conferences are confidential school activities. Never repeat any matter of a personal nature to other persons, except when it is necessary professionally.

9. Accept and respect the personality of the parent.
10. Be completely honest in matters of fact. Look forward to each conference. Expect it to be interesting, pleasant, and a new adventure in understanding parents.¹⁷

Reporting pupil progress in school is really the culminating phase of the evaluation process. First, purposeful goals are established and instruction is provided to help children make progress toward achieving them, and then their progress is reported to parents and guardians. Do not overlook the opportunities provided during your student teaching to learn the skills necessary for reporting pupil progress to parents.

Summary

This chapter has attempted to give you an over-view of the evaluation processes used in modern elementary schools. At first, you may want to concentrate on only a few of the more important phases of evaluation. Each year, you will develop new skills in appraising pupil progress in school. Use the following suggestions as a framework for your study of evaluation procedures:

1. Always begin with clearly defined purposes. Valid appraisal must be based upon the specific purposes used to direct your teaching.
2. Help children to assume responsibility in establishing individual goals. Then help each child discover ways to evaluate his progress.
3. Direct group activity carefully for each different learning experience. Help children establish good goals to guide each group enterprise. Make the evaluation process an integral part of group work and play.
4. Set aside adequate time for evaluation activities. Do not leave this important process until the very last minute. At the beginning of a class or activity, you may wish to review the progress of the previous period. Constantly seek new opportunities to use evaluation devices to motivate more desirable learning.

¹⁷ Adapted from *Guidance in Elementary Schools*. School Publication No. 439, Los Angeles City Schools, 1948.

5. Try to perfect one evaluation device at a time. You cannot expect to become skillfull in one day, one month, or even one year. Ask your colleagues how long it has taken them to become adept in using some particular device.

6. Be aware of the many uses to which you can put the information secured through evaluation processes. Grouping students for instruction, providing for individual differences, and perfecting more adequate reporting to parents are but a few.

7. Send desirable classroom products and accomplishments home. Make certain that children are aware of the progress they have made and that they will interpret carefully to parents just what has been accomplished.

8. Recognize the importance of home contacts. Work carefully with your principal to use the technique best suited to individual homes. Sometimes a letter or a conference at school will be better than a home visit.

9. Remember that your contacts with adults in the community are very important. You are an interpreter of the successes and failures of your school. If you have become a good student of modern evaluation devices, you will have little trouble in presenting the positive and constructive achievements that have been made by elementary teachers.

10. Your professional growth is tied up with adequate evaluation. You will want to be increasingly on the alert to discover new ways of teaching and to discover new ways of evaluation.

Interpretation of the school program and professional growth in service are significant responsibilities of effective teachers. But you will have other responsibilities in securing a position and in teaching in the elementary school. The final chapter outlines suggestions that have proved to be helpful to many student teachers.

Suggestions for Further Reading

American Council on Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children*. Washington, D.C.: American Council, 1949. The first three chapters will help you in understanding child behavior, recording data about children, and understanding the home life of pupils.

- Association for Student Teaching. *Evaluation of Student Teaching*. Lock Haven, Pennsylvania: Edwards Brothers, Inc., 1949. An excellent treatment of principles employed in evaluating student teaching.
- Burr, James B., Lowry W. Harding, and Leland B. Jacobs. *Student Teaching in the Elementary School*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950. Chapter VIII presents a good background for understanding the growth and development of evaluation.
- California State Department of Education. *Evaluating Pupil Progress*. Bulletin of Department of Education, Vol. 21, No. 6, April, 1952. Major emphasis is placed upon the instructional values to be derived from an all-inclusive program of evaluation. The entire publication is excellent for student teachers.
- Cunningham, Ruth, and Associates. *Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951. Extremely helpful for teachers interested in understanding group behavior.
- Michaelis, J. U., *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950. Chapter 15 provides many examples of charts, check lists, and other evaluative devices that may be used in the elementary school.
- National Society for the Study of Education. *The Measurement of Understanding*, Forty-fifth Yearbook. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945. A comprehensive treatment of evaluation, with attention to each area of the curriculum; many practical suggestions are included.
- Shane, Harold G. and E. T. McSwain. *Evaluation and the Elementary Curriculum*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1951. Chapter III is especially helpful in defining the nature of evaluation and in showing its function in improving elementary education. Good annotated bibliography.
- Wiles, Kimball. *Teaching for Better Schools*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. Chapter IX discusses marks and evaluation, with a summary of specific suggestions essential to effective evaluation. Chapter X outlines specific techniques of evaluation.

13

Growth In Service

DURING YOUR first year of teaching you will encounter many problems. Since in some respects this period will be similar to your induction into student teaching, you will have learned many things that you can put to immediate use, such as locating instructional resources, getting acquainted with the community, learning school policies, and studying pupils. In fact, a careful review of specific chapters in this text will be helpful in dealing with pertinent problems as they arise. However, there are additional problems that merit special emphasis.

SECURING YOUR FIRST POSITION

Your first problem is obviously that of securing a position. Be sure to take advantage of the services offered by the placement office in your college or university. Among these services are the compilation of a set of credentials, including letters of recommendation and information on your qualifications, opportunities to interview employing officials, notification of available positions, information on conditions of employment in particular places, advice on questions that arise in securing a position, and the sending of your credentials to school systems that request them or to which you request them to be sent. Be sure to get a set of credentials on file at the time suggested by your advisers. In most institutions, this means early in the semester after which you wish to secure a position.

In some states, the state department of education or the state teachers association operates placement offices. These offices are

operated in accordance with sound policies. Confer with your advisers regarding the ones in your area. There are also commercial agencies that charge a certain percentage of the year's salary for placement services. However, you should be able to secure a position without paying such a fee. If for some reason you do find it necessary to use the services of a commercial agency, seek advice from campus placement officials, officers of the state teachers association, or from your advisers, so that you can locate one that is reliable and professional in its operation.

Preparing Credentials. Placement offices supply appropriate forms for the preparation of credentials.¹ When you fill them out, be careful about spelling, legibility, punctuation, and correct usage. Proofread what you have written so that you can correct any errors and fill in any omissions. Prepare all forms accurately and neatly so that they will work for you and not against you. Read all directions with care before you begin to fill in any forms.

There are several points that should be emphasized here and now about the preparation of credentials. Take immediate steps to get a set on file in the campus placement office, even though you have secured a position, or will not be able to accept a position until a later date because of military service, marriage, or graduate study. Later, if your credentials are needed for a particular purpose, or if it becomes impossible to secure recommendations from key individuals because of resignation, death, or some other reason, you will be protected. Second, keep your credentials up to date. Whenever you change positions, or plan to change, have your placement office secure a recommendation from the administrative official who has been supervising your work. Here again, by keeping your credentials up to date you will be protected whenever you need them. Remember in many places the availability of a set of credentials is prerequisite to the serious consideration of a candidate by an employing official.

References. In preparing credentials, it is standard practice to

¹ "Credentials" is used to refer to letters of recommendation and other papers filed in the placement office.

list the names of individuals who know you and your qualifications as a teacher. Your college supervisor or director, supervising teacher, major adviser, and any professors who know your work are the best possibilities. In addition, many placement directors suggest the inclusion of a personal or character reference. Be sure to secure the permission of each individual whose name you wish to use as a reference. In listing references, write the name, address, and title of each person legibly and accurately.

Photographs. A good photograph is an essential part of credentials in many states. It should be clear, of standard application size, and unmounted. In dressing to be photographed, wear neat, dark, and well-tailored clothes that photograph well. Avoid frills, veils, hats, ornate jewelry, club pins, loud shirts and blouses, and striped or spotted ties. Be well-groomed and pose naturally to provide a front view of head and shoulders. Do not (as some individuals actually have done) use a tinted photograph, or one that includes other individuals or shows you in uniform or cap and gown, or one that was taken at the beach, on a picnic, or on a hiking trip. Use a standard application photograph as specified by your placement office. If you plan to file special applications in certain school systems, secure additional prints so that no time will be wasted in going back for them.

Letters of Inquiry. Because of the services available through placement offices, you will probably not be called upon to write a general letter of inquiry relative to vacancies. On the other hand, if you have been unable to secure a position through placement offices, or if you desire a position in a particular place not served by your placement office, or if you have heard about an opening that sounds challenging, a letter of inquiry may be helpful. Seek advice from your advisers or placement officials if you are in doubt about the appropriateness of sending a letter of inquiry to a particular school system.

Letters of Application. When a vacancy notice is received, a letter of application should be written immediately, unless you

are definitely not interested in the reported opening. In your letter of application you should state why you are interested in, and feel qualified for, that particular position; you should include a very brief summary of your training and experience to supplement the information sent in your papers; and you should make a statement regarding your availability for an interview. If you do not receive a reply from the employing officials within two or three weeks, it is usually wise for you to write a follow-up letter.

In general, a letter of application should be brief, clear, and concise. There is some evidence to support the belief that you should avoid both the stereotyped form that allows for no individuality at all, and the bizarre approach. The following specific suggestions may be helpful to you:

1. Use standard-size stationery, $8\frac{1}{2} \times 11$ inches, heading the letter with the name of the superintendent (or employing official), and using the last name of the superintendent in the salutation. (See the example below.)

2. If the letter is written in longhand—and some superintendents prefer that form—use black ink and write as legibly as possible. If the letter is typed, sign your name in your own handwriting. Typing is usually preferred, although letters written in longhand are frequently best when applying for positions that involve the teaching of penmanship. Write on only one side of the paper.

3. Be specific and to the point regarding the grades and subjects you are prepared to teach, the teaching certificate you hold, where credentials may be secured, and when you will be available for service.

4. Close the letter by requesting that any necessary application forms be sent to you, and by expressing thanks for consideration of your application.

5. Do not be clever, witty, tricky, or humorous, or attempt to create the impression that you are an unusual person. Such efforts usually backfire and work to the detriment of the applicant. Be brief and businesslike.

6. Proofread your letter before mailing it so that any errors in punctuation, usage, margins, paragraphing, and form can be de-

tected. If you find any, rewrite the letter so that a neat, legible copy can be sent.

7. Enclose a letter-size, self-addressed, stamped envelope so that appropriate forms can be sent to you.

8. Confer with placement officials or your director of student teaching if you have questions not covered by the points above.

The following example is illustrative of appropriate style and content in an application letter that may be used when a particular position is known to be open.

1201 Walnut Street
(City) , (State)

March 10, 19__

Mr. A. S. Brown, Superintendent
(Name) Public Schools
(City) , (State)

Dear Mr. Brown:

This letter is written to make application for a teaching position in the elementary schools in your community.

I am completing the requirements for the elementary certificate this term, with a major in education, and will be available for a position in September. My minor fields are music and science. Find attached a brief statement of courses I have completed in college, collegiate activities in which I have participated, and experiences I have had in working with children in summer camp, scouting, and similar activities.

The campus placement office is sending my credentials directly to you at my request. If special forms are necessary for making an application, please have them sent to me. It will be possible for me to come for an interview at a time convenient to you.

Please accept my thanks for your consideration of this application.

Very truly yours,
(Signed)
(Name of Applicant)

There are several guide-lines to observe in connection with the sending of letters of application and the filing of credentials for a position.

1. Always file applications with the superintendent of schools unless specifically directed to do otherwise.

2. Do not make application to be employed in a school system in which you will not accept a position.
3. Once you have accepted a position, notify your placement office and all school systems where you have applications on file that you have accepted a position and are now unavailable for employment.
4. Although it is appropriate to file applications in more than one school system, it is not ethical to bargain or delay in responding to an offer made by a particular school system.
5. Never apply for a specific position currently held by another teacher or engage in any activity that will undermine another applicant's chances of securing a position.
6. File applications for vacant positions far enough ahead of the beginning of the school year so that both you and the school system can reach a decision well before the term opens.

The Personal Interview. An interview with the employing official(s) is an essential step in securing a position in most school systems. It may be arranged by the placement bureau or the official in charge of personnel selection in the school system in which you are making application.

Make whatever preparation you can for the interview. Endeavor to learn something about the school system and the community in which it is located. Placement officials will be of service in giving you valuable background information on most positions for which you will be interviewed. Be ready to express briefly and succinctly your point of view on such problems as the place of skills, discipline, areas of the curriculum, and various activities in the school program. Learn as much as possible about the position that is open and be prepared to discuss your qualifications in terms of the requirements of the position.

Approach the interview with tactfulness, good-naturedness, frankness, and sincerity. Avoid boastfulness, timidity, ridicule of the teaching profession, and any behavior that suggests you are not deeply interested in teaching. Most school officials are reluctant to recommend individuals for positions who view teaching as a stop-gap job. Be a good listener and respond hon-

estly to questions put to you; avoid the error of doing most of the talking. On the other hand, it will not be taken amiss if you ask pertinent questions about the school and the community. Keep in mind the fact that any unjudicious comments about your knowing influential individuals may convey the idea that you are trying to use "connections" to secure the position. Be neat and well-groomed so that your personal appearance will be excellent; your appearance has a direct bearing on the impression you make. In your response to questions and in your general manner, you should convey an impression of cooperativeness, willingness to accept and carry out suggestions, and ability to speak with confidence. Stress what you have to offer rather than what you have to gain. By all means, avoid the following errors:

1. Wearing flashy or loud clothes, gaudy accessories, and extreme makeup.
2. Being late or rushing in at the last minute.
3. Entering an interview chewing gum or smoking.
4. Taking friends or relatives to the interview.
5. Greeting the interviewer in an over-friendly and gushy manner.
6. Being careless about posture, speech, or mannerisms.
7. Stressing reasons why you must get a job right away.
8. Using slang, strong language, or incorrect grammar.
9. Being overly interested in salary and uninterested in the specific responsibilities of the position.
10. Bragging about or exaggerating your qualifications.
11. Attempting to use pressure on school officials to secure a position.
12. Trying to extend the interview beyond the wishes of the interviewer, or trying to terminate it too soon.
13. Failing to keep confidential all information secured in private interviews.

To Accept or Not To Accept a Position. There are several questions to consider in deciding whether or not to accept a particular position. Although you will wish to confer with friends and advisers, ultimately you must make up your own

mind. Helpful points to consider in making such a decision follow:

1. Can I handle the position effectively?
2. Will I be happy in the type of community in which the school is located?
3. Are working conditions satisfactory? Philosophy of education? Teaching load? Salary? Tenure? Retirement?
4. Are the expressed expectancies for teachers consistent with my own point of view and habits of living?
5. Are there opportunities for professional growth?
6. Are the provisions of the contract satisfactory?

Your Teaching Contract. A teaching contract is a mutual agreement binding both the teacher and the school system. It is not ethical to break a contract or to fail to sign a contract if you have promised to do so. Exceptions may arise in which extenuating circumstances (such as illness, personal problems, family difficulties) force a teacher to request a release after giving adequate explanation to the employing official, who in turn recommends a release to the board of education. However, such cases are rare. To be avoided are trivial reasons such as, "to be near the family," "to help Aunt Hilda on weekends," "to teach with a dear friend," "to get a small increase in salary," "to teach in my favorite grade," or "to be near the city in order to attend concerts." Contracts are designed to protect you, the children you will teach, and the school system that employs you. As stated in the Code of Ethics of the National Education Association, "A contract, once signed, should be faithfully adhered to until it is dissolved by mutual consent. Ample notification should be given both by school officials and teachers in case a change in position is to be made." By all means, confer with your placement advisers if you think that extenuating circumstances force you to consider making a request for release.

A problem that sometimes arises with experienced teachers is whether or not to request a release when a position that offers considerable professional advancement becomes available. Most

superintendents will recommend a release when such an opportunity arises, and no hesitancy should be shown in discussing a release with them.

LIVING ACCOMMODATIONS

Satisfactory living arrangements should be selected prior to the opening of school, so that you can give full attention to teaching problems as they arise. School officials, officers of the local teachers association, and fellow teachers will have suggestions regarding places to live, and, in addition, will be able to answer questions about the desirability of available accommodations. To be avoided are living quarters that create special burdens and problems, such as caring for ill or elderly persons, baby-sitting, lack of privacy, poor meals, or loss of sleep because of noise and disturbances. Beginning teachers have enough problems without adding those that invariably arise in unsatisfactory living quarters. The following points constitute minimum essentials. Check them carefully before you make a final decision.

Privacy: Can you be alone to rest, relax, or work without interference or disturbance?

Freedom: Can you come and go as you wish without disturbing others?

Neighborhood: Is it acceptable in terms of your own feelings of status?

Distance: Can you go to school and return in good time and without difficulty?

Comfort: Are heat, light, ventilation, furniture, and furnishings adequate?

Cleanliness: Are toilet and cooking facilities sanitary, in good state of repair, and easy to keep clean?

Cost: Is the cost reasonable and within your budget?

EFFECTIVE ORIENTATION

An imperative need of all new teachers is to get acquainted as soon as possible with co-workers, instructional policies, and specific school regulations. Of first importance in this connection is an orientation conference with the principal of the school to which you are assigned. If you are not invited to have such an interview, you should request one at a time convenient to the principal. In this conference you will be able to learn about the point of view of the principal, details of your assignment, and sources of information regarding policies and regulations. Be prepared to take notes on directions and suggestions given by the principal. Have questions ready on procedures and regulations that are of immediate concern to you.

More and more school systems each year are organizing workshops for teachers prior to the opening of school. In these pre-school workshops opportunities are provided for teachers to become acquainted with school policies and procedures, instructional materials, the program of instruction, fellow teachers and administrators, and special problems for consideration during the year. If such a workshop is available, participate in it wholeheartedly so that you will be able to get off to a good start with your co-workers as well as gain valuable information regarding teaching problems.

Much information about specific procedures and many helpful suggestions will come from other teachers. In some instances, the principal may suggest a fellow teacher as an adviser and helper to explain certain details to you and to assist in your orientation. You will also find that many questions will be answered by other teachers in informal conversation. Be alert and receptive to suggestions made in your behalf. Remember, however, that basic questions of school policy and any deviation from them are always taken up with the principal.

Many problems of orientation are considered in staff meetings. View these meetings as an opportunity to get acquainted

with your co-workers and to learn about policies, procedures, and new emphases in the school program. The school-wide staff meeting of the superintendent typically is designed to keynote the year's work, outline specific needs, propose plans, make announcements, and welcome the staff back to school. Keep



Los Angeles

Berkeley

Determine play space and playground regulations for your group.

specific announcements and proposals in mind so that you can cooperate in carrying through on them.

Teachers' meetings conducted by the principal are designed to consider specific problems, policies, and procedures in your school. In these meetings you will be able to learn much about the educational point of view of the principal and teachers as well as the morale and spirit of the group. In the first meeting of the year, specific attention will be given to schedule require-

ments, enrollment procedures, special duties for teachers, procedures for assembling and dismissing pupils, fire drill, announcements, and information on supplies and textbooks. Be prepared to take notes so that you can follow up on directions and suggestions given by the principal.

In order to be sure certain policies and regulations are not overlooked, it is helpful to keep specific items in mind. The check list that follows was designed for the use of new teachers by a group in the New York City Schools.² Check off each point as you secure adequate information on it. Raise questions with your immediate supervisor on points that are not clear to you.

Check List for New Teachers

1. Is there a school handbook with information for new teachers?
2. Who is my immediate supervisor?
3. What am I to do in case of a fire or air raid drill?
4. What staircases and exits may be used for my room in regular and rapid dismissals?
5. What do different bell signals mean?
6. What procedures are used for pupils to enter the building, to assemble, and to leave the building?
7. What preparations must I make to handle emergency drills?
8. What are the regulations concerning visitors to the classroom?
9. What provisions do I make to cover my class if I must leave my room?
10. What are the regulations concerning pupils' leaving the room or building?
11. How do I record and report pupils' attendance?
12. What procedures do I follow when I am absent?
13. What procedures are used for permitting pupils to be released for religious instruction and to attend dental and medical clinics?
14. What provision is made for lunch in school?

² Board of Education, City of New York, *Curriculum and Materials*, Vol. VI, No. 1, September, 1951, p. 3.

15. How can I secure the services of doctor, nurse, clerk, attendance officer, and custodian? Others?
16. What help is available for working with non-English speaking pupils and parents?
17. What are my responsibilities during the yard and lunchroom duty assignments?
18. What am I expected to do about a Plan Book?



Every classroom needs an aquarium.

San Diego

19. What is the procedure for obtaining textbooks, general, art and sewing supplies, audio-visual aids, physical education equipment, and duplication and typing service?
20. Are there rooms set aside for special activities: library, science, crafts, audio-visual aids, shop?
21. Who are the people in charge of trips, audio-visual aids, library?
22. What are my responsibilities concerning room decoration?
23. May I visit other classes?

Two or three special items are sometimes overlooked by new teachers. In some schools a systematic program of testing is carried out at the beginning of the school year. If this is true in your situation, secure the tests and manuals ahead of time and make specific plans to carry out the directions given in them. Remember that a deviation from them may alter results considerably. Be sure to record results in the manner and on the forms prescribed in your school.

Be sure to ascertain the procedures for reporting accidents and injuries that occur on school property. In many school systems forms are provided for this purpose. If they are not provided, keep a record on which you note name of child, description of accident, nature of injury, first-aid service provided, time, place, witnesses, time of notification of parents, and any other information pertinent to the case. If questions are raised later, you will be in a position to answer them accurately and promptly.

In checking school facilities, learn the location of the office, special rooms such as the library, lunchroom, and auditorium, and playground space for various groups, so that your directions to pupils can be definite and accurate. Check your own classroom to determine facilities for heating, lighting, and ventilation. Remember to make necessary adjustments prior to the beginning of the school day. Give attention to the placement of chalkboards and bulletin boards and ways in which you can use them most effectively. Check storage facilities and supply cupboards, being sure to keep them neat, clean, and in good order. Note the availability of equipment and apparatus available to your classes; observe regulations for their use.

A special note should be made about advance planning for your own absence from school. Seating charts for your classes, lesson plans, and notes on any special materials and equipment must be available to the substitute teacher. It is a good idea to keep them in a desk drawer that is readily accessible to the substitute. Be sure to determine the school policies to be followed in this connection.

PLANNING FOR TEACHING

Planning for your teaching assignment may well begin as soon as you have accepted a position. At the time of acceptance, or soon thereafter, you should secure available courses of study, units of work for your grade, and basal textbooks with accompanying manuals. Become thoroughly acquainted with them prior to the opening of school. In addition, it will be helpful to make specific plans for the development of a unit of work as outlined in Chapter 5. This does not mean that you will arrive on the job tired and tense because you have spent the summer at hard work. Rather, it means that you will have given adequate time to the building of a solid background for your work.

Another task that should be undertaken before the opening of school, or immediately after school begins, is a survey of instructional resources. Use the check list on page 48 to discover resources available to your class. If you have given thought to a unit of work to develop and are acquainted with the course of study for different areas of the curriculum, your search for materials will be much more efficient than if you have done little planning. Furthermore, many uses of available materials will be immediately apparent within the unit, in reading and arithmetic as well as in other areas of the curriculum.

Secure materials and equipment that are needed for frequent use in the classroom: chart liner, china-marking pencil, India ink, and round-nib pens for chart making; staff liner and pitch pipe for music; scissors; a bell gong or similar device to call the group to attention; flower containers and plants.

Gather supplementary instructional materials and prepare them for convenient use: a file of mounted pictures related to holidays, stories, units; directions for making materials; a list of useful recordings, filmstrips, and other aids; a collection of poems and stories for various occasions; a file of games for both outdoor and indoor use; a list of children's books on easy reading levels; tagboard picture mountings; objects, samples, and specimens; a collection of maps, articles, and leaflets; practice

and independent work materials for reading and arithmetic; and games and puzzles for use during free time.

Learn as much as possible about the children who are to be in your class. Secure a list of their names from the principal and study available records, noting data from tests, health problems,



Albany, California

Flowers help to make the classroom attractive.

behavior problems, evidences of personal and social maladjustment, language backgrounds, interests, home conditions, extent of transiency, and the like. If possible, determine the organization of working groups in reading and arithmetic during the preceding year. Plan to give tests and reviews to determine each child's level of achievement so that effective working groups can

be arranged. Teacher-prepared tests and exercises based on textbooks available to all children are especially helpful in this regard. Be prepared to observe individuals at work and listen critically as they read and carry on discussions. Some of your best clues to needs and problems will come from informal observation.



Albany, California

Attractive centers of interest stimulate interests and promote independent activities.

Become familiar with the community and the school neighborhood. A drive around the community or a walk around the school neighborhood will enable you to note types of homes, stores, playgrounds, traffic hazards, churches, libraries, industries, bus or streetcar stops, and possible field trips. By checking census publications, local newspapers, and materials from the chamber of commerce, you can secure information regarding population, occupations, plans for community improvements, resources, industrial output, racial backgrounds, delinquency.

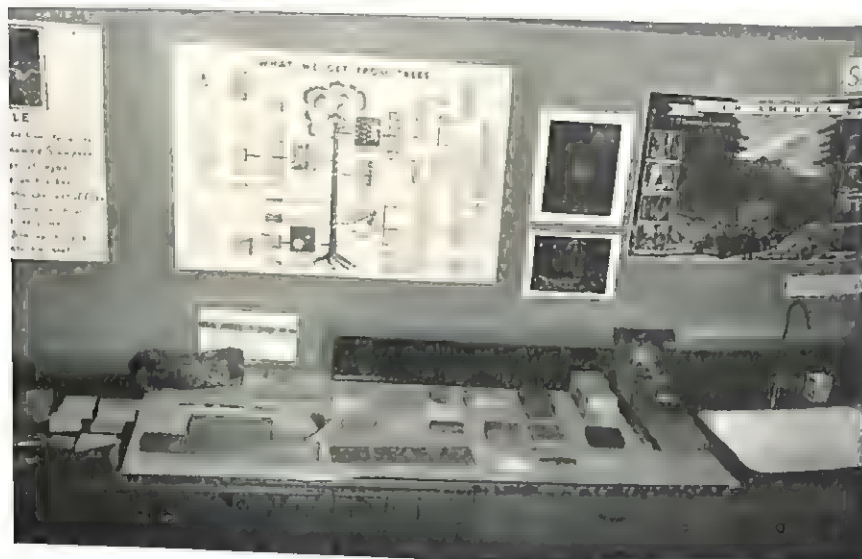
child-welfare agencies, and community problems. Be alert to the possibility of securing pertinent information about community conditions and problems from your principal and fellow teachers.

The First Day. The first day of school is of great importance because of the impression you will make on the children in your group. Be ready for it so that it will go smoothly and efficiently. Be sure to consider the following points as you make plans for the first day:

1. Have the room in order, with textbooks and supplies arranged for distribution. Have an interesting center of attention, such as a flower arrangement or bulletin board, to add to the attractiveness of the classroom.
2. Greet with a friendly smile any children who enter before the bell rings. Check former pupils on the roll. Have new pupils complete any required registration procedures. Send others to the playground with directions to remain there until the bell rings.
3. Meet parents in an efficient and cordial manner. Answer immediate questions, but be careful not to get involved in long discussions. You must be free to handle enrollment of pupils. Ask parents to be seated or to return if they wish to have a conference on special problems.
4. When the bell rings for the beginning of school, meet your pupils at the door of the classroom or entrance to the building. Guide them in an orderly and efficient manner. If necessary, remind individual children that "We walk to our seats," or "We stay in line." Direct the children to take any seat; state that permanent seats will be assigned later.
5. After the children are seated, welcome them to school and introduce yourself by telling them your name and by writing it on the board. Guide the group in saluting the flag. Make any announcements that have been requested by the office. Call the roll from the list of pupils for your class, being careful to pronounce each name correctly. Check pronunciations ahead of time with the former teacher or principal. Direct pupils who do not belong in your room to the appropriate room or to the office for assignment.
6. Distribute textbooks and materials according to plan. Select

necessary pupil-helpers and give specific directions, such as, "Begin at the front of the room," "Give one sheet of paper to each pupil," or "Place a worksheet on each pupil's desk."

7. Have work planned for the period immediately following the distribution of materials. Give definite directions and explanations so that each child will know exactly what to do. Explain work standards, procedures for discussion, and other necessary points so that



Charts, pictures, and specimens make effective classroom arrangements for back-to-school night.

Alhany, California

appropriate behavior will be evident in classroom activities from the very beginning. Collect work papers in a systematic and orderly manner by having pupils pass them to the front or by asking pupil-helpers to collect them.

8. Explain routine procedures, such as leaving the room one row at a time, staying in line, and walking down the proper side of the hall. If any children forget established standards, ask them to wait until others have passed and explain why their cooperation is essential to the safety of others.

9. Have plans, directions, and explanations ready for playground activities, giving attention to rules of the game, play space

for your group, choosing of teams, captains or leaders, and equipment.

10. Take special steps with beginners to make them feel happy and secure. Have play materials attractively arranged and ready for use so that each child's interest can be secured immediately. Be friendly and affectionate so that each child will know that he is welcome and is genuinely liked by you. Remember that many beginners are reassured when the teacher takes them by the hand or gives them a friendly pat on the shoulder. By all means, develop a warm, friendly atmosphere so that each child will want to come to school.

CONTINUOUS PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

Professional growth in service is a fundamental responsibility of doctors, lawyers, engineers, teachers, nurses, social workers—in fact, members of all professions. No occupation really becomes a profession until the individuals in it participate actively in enterprises designed to keep them up-to-date and abreast of developments and ways of solving professional problems. As stated in the N.E.A. Code of Ethics, "It is the duty of every teacher to maintain his own efficiency by study, by travel, and by other means which keep him abreast of the trends in education and the world in which he lives." During the past few years, more and more activities have been provided to promote the professional growth of teachers. There is a trend toward increasing teacher participation in the planning and development of in-service education programs. More and more school systems are taking steps to provide experiences that meet the specific problems and needs of teachers. Let us consider some of the opportunities available to teachers.

Organizations. Three organizations to which all teachers should belong are the local teachers association, the state teachers organization, and the National Education Association. The local association deals with immediate problems of teachers in their own school systems, and provides opportunities for professional improvement. The state association promotes teacher welfare, with special reference to legislation affecting salaries,

retirement, and tenure. The national association promotes teacher welfare at the national level, and publishes the well-known *NEA Journal*. The welfare of teachers and the general improvement of the teaching profession require one hundred per cent membership in the three foregoing basic organizations. In addition, you may wish to join one or more of the specialized associations of the N.E.A. that deal with problems of special interest to teachers.

Continuous Study of Pupils and the Community. As you work with your classes, you will learn much about the behavior of pupils in groups. In addition to group analysis and study, many teachers state that the intensive study of one or two pupils each year contributes a great deal to their professional competence. New insights into emotions, a clearer grasp of the reasons why children act as they do, the discovery of ways to meet problems and needs as they arise, and a sympathetic understanding of behavior are typical outcomes of such study. Similarly, there is great value in a continuous study of the community, with attention to the impact of home conditions, population shifts, working conditions, and safety and recreational factors upon the lives of children. Of importance, too, is the continuous search for new community resources that can be used, such as field trips, visitors to the classroom, and audio-visual materials. In short, the classroom and the community are two of the best possible laboratories for in-service education.

Independent Activities. A great deal of professional growth in service comes about through independent activities. In addition to pupil study and community study, there are other opportunities that many teachers have found to be rewarding, particularly those that relate to practical problems. Extension classes, correspondence courses, and summer-school classes offer opportunities to study a variety of topics and problems. By reading professional textbooks, magazines, and yearbooks in various fields you can keep up to date on recent research and developments related to educational problems. Many teachers find that observation of other teachers and visits to demonstration centers

are valuable. Rewarding, too, is independent research carried out in connection with specific problems that have arisen in your teaching. Attending lectures, forums, and panel discussions is possible in many communities. Travel within the United States and to foreign countries is increasing in popularity as a technique for stimulating professional growth. Not to be overlooked are individual interviews and conferences requested by teachers themselves to secure help on specific problems.

Group Work. A major emphasis in current programs of in-service education is group work in which members of the school staff participate in the solution of educational problems. Study-discussion groups, committees, workshops, faculty meetings, and departmental meetings are illustrative of types of group work frequently organized in schools today. Typical activities of such groups include definition of problems, appraisal of materials, discovery of new resources, formulation of policies and recommendations, and identification of needs. Group work may include a variety of problems, such as extracurricular activities, revision of curricula, improvement of communication skills, school housing, guidance, and inter-group education.

There are certain essentials in effective group work that must be observed. The following statement outlines basic considerations that may be utilized in planning, conducting, and appraising group work. Beginning teachers should find it especially helpful as a guide to participation in the many group meetings they will encounter during their first years of teaching.

ASCD STUDY-DISCUSSION GROUP PROCEDURES³

Each Group Member

- Helps decide on specific problems and ways of working as a group
- Contributes ideas and suggestions related to the problem

³ Reprinted from program of national meeting of Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1950. Prepared for the Orientation Committee by J. Cecil Parker, University of California, Berkeley.

- Listens to what other members say and seeks helpful ideas and insights
- Requests clarification when needed
- Observes the group process and makes suggestions
- Assumes various roles as needed

The Leader

- Helps group get acquainted
- Helps group establish ground rules
- Reports results of pre-conference planning for work of group
- Helps group proceed with planning and deciding
- Calls on group to clarify, analyze, and summarize problems and suggested solutions
- Draws out the "timid soul" and keeps the dominant person from monopolizing
- Knows particular contributions which different persons can make
- Assists recorder and observer

The Recorder

- Keeps a record of the main problems, issues, ideas, facts, and decisions as they develop in the discussion
- Summarizes points and reports to group from time to time as needed
- Consults with group about kind of final reports they would like made
- Prepares resolutions and other final report with other designated members of the group
- Attends any scheduled clearing house or intergroup sharing committee sessions
- Prepares final group report and is responsible for getting it to proper clearing house

The Observer

- Gives special attention to group process in respect to:
 - Formation and clarity of goals
 - Degree and kind of participation and interaction
 - Clarity of discussion
 - Effectiveness of leadership
 - Use of resources
 - Progress toward goals

- Helps group decide upon ways of evaluating group process
- Helps group observe and evaluate group process without losing sight of the content of the discussion
- Reports to the group, if asked, regarding observations

The Resource Person

- Supplies information or material at request of group or when such seems pertinent to discussion
- Cites experiences at request of group or when such seems pertinent to discussion
- Assists leader in moving toward achievement of goals

What Are Some Essentials?

Clear formulation of realistic goals

Work on specific problems rather than large general problem areas

Plan in terms of time available and all resources

Maintain an atmosphere which is permissive and conducive to full participation

Make consideration of ways of working an integral part of the effort of the group

Each individual group member participates

Physical conditions make a difference; best when everyone can be seen and heard

Get acquainted; use names

How Do We Secure Maximum Results?

Each person should do his own thinking. Don't try "to save time" by telling the group the right answer. The leader is not a group instructor but a guide trying to arrange conditions so that each will do creative thinking. Group discussion is not a debating society. We do not argue for the fun of it. The issues are of great importance; wise men disagree in their views; our task is to find more truth than we bring to any group meeting. We are participating in a cooperative quest. Our thinking is creative rather than combative.

Challenge contributions you cannot fully accept. Do not keep your disagreements quiet in the mistaken notion that it is better manners to pretend to agree when you do not. Make inquiry concerning the assumptions involved in the contribution. The "either-or" attitude is on the whole not fruitful. Search rather for new

means which enable both sets of values to be pursued without clash. Our concern in cooperative thinking is not simply to choose between two ways we now know, but if possible to find a way of integrating the values of both, thereby creating an improved solution. However, avoid smoothing over differences. Differences should be probed with questions to make them clear and sharp.

Do not pass any important matter that is not clear to you. Sometimes individuals hear unfamiliar terms and assume that everyone else must understand; hence they fear it would be humiliating to ask for explanations or illustrations. This is untrue. Have you not often been glad when someone else asked for clarification on a point on which you had been none too clear? Others may profit too, but you are in the group to learn, and you must not hesitate to ask.

Use special care to be fair to positions represented by a minority or not represented at all in the group. If you are aware of a position not being adequately represented, present it as its adherents would like to hear it stated, then explain your disagreement.

Be on the lookout for different uses of the same word. Call for illustrations whenever this difference becomes confusing. Do not wrangle over a verbal definition. Ask for a "such as."

Make discriminate use of short periods of silence. When there is some confusion over a diversity of opinions expressed, a minute of silence can do much to help members rise to a clearer perspective of what has been said. In suggesting this pause, the chairman should restate the precise issue under discussion. After the pause the members may be more able to cooperate in detecting the root of the disagreements. This may be in the partial nature of the experience and evidence used, or in a difference in the values. Try to keep in mind some ends everyone wants.

When discussion wanders, restate the question and get a new start. Sometimes, if the side-line is especially important, put it up to the group, "Shall we follow this interesting issue that has come up, or shall we return to the plan of discussion originally adopted?"

Utilize available time to best advantage. For every discussion there is available a limited amount of time. Each individual should help make it possible to utilize the time most effectively. To attempt too much in too short a time fosters a habit of slipshod and superficial thinking.

Do not monopolize the discussion. If you find yourself talking more than other members of the group, train yourself to pass over minor points, and to speak on only a few carefully chosen issues. Make short statements, not speeches.

Stress basic problems and questions. Ask yourself which ideas, experiences, and differences are basic, fundamental, and most worth discussing.

Summarize (1) whenever a major point is finished before going on to the next point; (2) whenever the discussion has been fairly long, drawn out, or confused; (3) shortly before the close of the period. Try to use the words of members of the group, rather than your translation.

The important thing is interaction. Discussion should not be directed toward the leader. No two members of the group should get into a discussion "with each other."

Trust the group. There is no person in it who is not superior to the others in at least one respect. The experience of all is richer than the experience of any one. The group as a whole can see further and more truly than its best member. Remember that every member of the group is an individual just as you are.

INTERPRETING THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

One responsibility that is almost universally overlooked by beginning teachers is that of interpreting the school program to the public. A good public-relations program is essential to the successful operation of any enterprise that is organized to meet basic needs of the public. In no other way can the purposes, methods, and achievements of an institution be evaluated and modified in terms of the values and goals of the group supporting it. Improvement of education for the youth of America depends upon the effectiveness with which the needs, problems, and achievements of our schools are interpreted to the public. Teachers must work as a team with other school employees in various phases of the public-relations program.

Effective public relations begin in the classroom. A first responsibility is to recognize that pupils themselves are the best

interpreters of the school program. If they tell their parents that each day's work is well planned, that their teachers are fair and helpful, and that they are proud of their school, then the program of interpretation is well on the road to success. Thus a major contribution of the teacher is the development of good teacher-pupil relationships based upon a sincere respect for each pupil and the development of an educational program that meets both individual and group needs. On the other hand, if day-to-day planning and teaching are inadequate, all the public-relations devices available will do little to develop good school-community relationships. In addition, however, each teacher has further responsibilities in the task of interpreting the schools to the public.

A clear understanding of what is meant by interpretation of education is essential. An honest and sincere reporting of facts related to issues, questions, and problems raised by interested citizens must be carried on at all times. Charges of inefficiency must be met with facts and explanations of conditions as they exist as well as with proposals for improvement. Needs for housing, instructional materials, reduction of teacher load, salary increments, and the like, must be presented in a forthright manner. In short, an accounting of the operation of the schools, along with plans for improvement, must be presented systematically and kept up to date. It is essential that teachers keep themselves well informed on school matters of importance throughout the school system as a whole as well as in their own school.

Interpretation involves more than a few newspaper articles and the annual report to the public, important as these may be. Teacher participation in a variety of public-relations activities is called for in better school systems. An alertness to the many possibilities that exist for teachers is a first step in making plans. The following list is illustrative:

Reporting to Parents: Report cards, conferences, home visitations, telephone calls, letters and notes, showing samples of work, incidental contacts in church or in stores.

School Activities: Discussion groups at P.T.A. meetings, visitor's day at school, programs, teas, parent-education classes, back-to-school night, open house, bazaars, banquets, special meetings.

Community Activities: Education-week activities, community surveys and field trips, festivals, concerts, forums, panels, service clubs, newspaper articles, speaker's bureaus, radio programs, TV programs, exhibits, public meetings, church functions.

Here is a point to remember in participating in such activities as those listed above: Be sure that your behavior contributes to a better understanding of, and respect for, the school in which you work and the school system as a whole. What a teacher says and does is long remembered by the typical layman and is frequently passed along to others. To be avoided are derogatory comments about school workers or the school program, disloyalty to the school administration, and comments about pupils who are experiencing difficulty. Laymen may infer from such comments that the teacher making them is not getting along too well, or that the situation at school has deteriorated since your arrival. If something is wrong at school (from your point of view), talk it over with the administration and endeavor in a professional manner to get it improved or changed.

The "human touch" is essential in good public relations. Be friendly and helpful in all relations with pupils and parents; telephone or send notes when pupils are ill; explain children's difficulties to parents in a tactful manner; help parent study groups willingly when asked; have the class welcome and orient newcomers; and remember children's birthdays through appropriate classroom activities, such as a birthday song or writing the child's name on the daily calendar of special events. Remember that "little things count" with children and parents—and, indeed, with one's co-workers, too!

In discussing school problems, use terms and concepts that laymen understand, instead of technical language. For example, possible substitutions for such terms as *core-curriculum*, *group dynamics*, and *inter-group education* are *classroom work needed*

by all youngsters, working effectively in groups, and learning to get along with others. A major cause of difficulty in some school systems has been the eager and somewhat reckless use of "educational lingo" that tends to confuse and disturb some individuals. The inevitable result is misunderstanding and criticism of the school program.

To be avoided in discussing problems with parents is the use of emotionally colored words such as *cheat*, *dirty*, *dishonest*, *lazy*, *liar*, *vicious*, *stupid*, and *worthless*.⁴ For example, if a pupil has taken a book from the library, say, "Paul took a book from the library without receiving permission from the librarian." Don't say, "Paul stole a book from the school library." Or if a pupil has difficulty in stating the facts honestly about his behavior, say, "William does not always tell us the truth when he has difficulties at school." Don't say, "William is a liar!" The point here is not to avoid the specific difficulty or to hide facts from parents. Rather, the point is to begin and carry on the discussion of a problem without using terms that create unnecessary antagonism and frustration. Why make difficult matters worse by using distasteful words when both the pupil's improvement and public relations will be enhanced if you exercise tact and care in your use of terms? Similar tact should be shown in pupil-teacher conferences.

Encourage parents to raise questions related to work in the classroom. In this way, points of confusion and misunderstanding can be brought out into the open and discussed in a frank and sincere manner. It is of utmost importance to keep such channels open so that teachers and administrators will know the problems that are of importance to laymen. Encourage a meeting of minds on existing issues and problems. If questions are raised that are not within your province, or are unrelated to your work, refer them to administrative officials.

It is especially important that teachers be prepared to give specific, definite answers to questions that are raised. For ex-

⁴ Adapted from *School-Community Relations*, 1947 Yearbook, New Jersey Secondary School Teachers Association, p. 13.

ample, the following reply was made to a query regarding how much United States history was being taught in the local schools:

Work on U.S. history in our schools begins in the elementary grades. The history of our community and our state is studied first. This is followed by a study of life in early America with attention to the discovery of America, colonial life, pioneer life on the frontier, westward expansion, and the contributions of great leaders to the development of our country.

In the junior high school we give a systematic study of U.S. history, our government and how it operates, and the importance of citizenship in life today as well as in the past. The significance of early events and the contributions of great leaders to the development of American institutions are brought out.

In high school a systematic and detailed study of the history of our country is carried out on an advanced level. Because the students are now more mature it is possible to dig deeply into the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution and other great documents in American History and to discover background information, contributions of different leaders, and relationships to early events. In addition, the panorama of U.S. history from early settlement to the present is analyzed specifically and in great detail. It should also be pointed out that U.S. history is a basic part of world history taught in grade X and current problems of our democracy taught in grade XII. The books that are used in classes at various levels are available for your scrutiny in the Principal's Office.

Getting Along in the Community. Learn and respect the mores, customs, and standards of the community in which you accept a position. Fortunately, in most communities teachers are no longer expected to live the prudish and cloistered lives that were demanded a few decades ago. Typical expectancies now include wholesome recreation, participation in social functions, and freedom in personal living. To be avoided by any intelligent person, not teachers alone, is negative behavior and misconduct, such as discrimination against minorities, carousing in unsavory places, limiting one's activities to cliques, and simi-

lar conduct indicative of inner maladjustment and disregard for acceptable social values. To be encouraged is active participation in, or attendance at, community activities such as forums, panels, lectures, concerts, service clubs, church work, work of social agencies, P.T.A., Red Cross drives, and children's organizations. Remember that personal growth and increasing social maturity are outcomes of participation in such activities. Seek conferences with school officials and fellow teachers if questions and problems arise regarding community relationships.

MAINTAINING AND CONTRIBUTING TO TEACHER MORALE

Teacher morale is composed of many things. Relations with co-workers, parents, and children, working conditions, living conditions, health, social activities, interests outside school, leisure-time activities, and continuing professional growth are among the basic elements of high morale. Each teacher has a double responsibility in this connection—contributing to the morale of others and maintaining his own morale. In a study⁵ carried out with several hundred teachers, the following specific points for building morale were proposed by the teachers themselves:

1. Cooperate and show a desire to see the other fellow's point of view.
2. Refrain from criticizing one teacher to another and criticizing a teacher before pupils. Unless requested to do so, never interfere in any matter between another teacher and a pupil.
3. Show genuine friendliness and willingness to lend a helping hand.
4. Take an active part in shouldering assigned duties; never pass the buck.
5. Exhibit a give-and-take attitude; play square.
6. Show a spirit of all for one and one for all; no cliques.

⁵ J. U. Michaelis, "Teachers Speak Out on Teacher Morale," *N.E.A. Journal*, Vol. 35, December, 1946, pp. 592-593.

7. Show loyalty to co-workers in all situations.
8. Help make all associations pleasant and congenial.
9. Give support in trying and carrying out new and worth-while ideas.
10. Have a sense of humor and recognize it in others.
11. Remember to thank others for help and to express pleasure in working with others.
12. Express sincere congratulations over small successes that others have; compliment others on jobs well done.
13. Keep your own morale high.
14. Always work in ways consistent with ethical principles.
15. Remember that your college education has only introduced you to teaching; it has not completed your professional education. Plan to grow and learn on the job.

In addition to the points above, several other factors are related to freedom from anxiety and worry about your teaching. When questions and problems do come up, don't keep them to yourself or brood over them. Confer with your principal, fellow teachers, supervisors, or your former supervisor of student teaching and supervising teacher. Remember that all these individuals are eager to help, and want you to do a good job. Work out a balanced program of living, with recreation, social contacts, and real fun with friends. Avoid building up tensions and anxieties through a schedule of "all work and no play." Find satisfactory housing accommodations so that adequate food and rest will be available to you. In fact, give serious attention to all aspects of good health so that your vitality, resistance to illness, and general feeling of well-being are kept at a high level. Maintain an attractive appearance, both for the sake of your own morale and that of your pupils and fellow teachers. Maintain cordial relations with parents. Give sympathetic consideration to questions they raise regarding their children and the school program.

In short, good human relationships are vital in every profession. In the teaching profession it is essential that teachers live by the values and relationships that they hope to develop in

pupils. The every-day practice of democratic human relationships contributes to your efficiency, the efficiency of others, and the general *esprit de corps* of the total school staff.

Summary

In securing a position, you will find your institutional placement office of great service; work closely with it. Similar services are frequently available through your state teachers association and state department of education. Keep your credentials up to date. Write letters of application carefully and formally. Prepare for personal interviews with administrators by securing information about the particular school and community in which you are interested. Be friendly, frank, and concise during the interview.

After securing a position, orient yourself through a conference with the school principal and through attendance at pre-school meetings and workshops. Secure any available handbooks for new teachers and note pertinent items. If possible, prepare your classroom for work before the opening of school.

Maximum professional growth will be assured by membership in the local professional group, the state organization, and the National Education Association. Growth in teaching competency requires continuous study of your pupils, your community, and your teaching field. Professional reading, visitation, research, and summer-school attendance are most essential. Community participation and travel will help you grow as a person and as a citizen.

Since you need to become an effective participant in groups, you should study modern discussion and leadership techniques. You will have a responsibility for interpreting your school to its patrons. Good teaching is the best possible technique. Be warm, friendly, and human in all relationships with parents and community groups.

Keep up your own morale through professional study and growth; contribute to that of your colleagues by being friendly, helpful, sincere, and cooperative. Be loyal to your school, yet

seek to improve it. Above all, be democratic in all relationships, and you will improve yourself, your school, and your profession.

Suggestions for Further Reading

Burr, J. B., L. W. Harding, and L. B. Jacobs. *Student Teaching in the Elementary School*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950. Chapter XV presents good points on judging the position, adjusting to the school situation, and professional growth.

Division of Press and Relations, National Education Association, Washington, D.C.

The Yearly "PR" Guide

It Starts in the Classroom (Newsletter)

It Starts in the Classroom (Handbook)

The Teacher and Public Relations

The foregoing publications can be found in many school libraries, as well as in college and university libraries. Or they can be secured directly from the N.E.A. They are practical and to the point.

Mehl, Marie A., H. H. Mills, and H. R. Douglass. *Teaching in the Elementary School*. New York: The Ronald Press, 1950. Chapter XXIII presents concrete discussion of in-service education activities most frequently employed in the elementary school.

Otto, H. J., *Principles of Elementary Education*. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1949. The teacher as a person, citizen, and professional worker is discussed in Chapter XV.

Schorling, R., *Student Teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1949. A good discussion of problems faced by beginning teachers appears on pp. 351-390.

Wofford, Kate, *Teaching in Small Schools*. New York: The Macmillan Company 1946. Chapter XVI presents suggestions and principles for use in working with parents; home visitation, parent-teacher cooperation, illustrations of actual practice, and related topics are considered.

Appendix



NEA Code of Ethics

WE, THE MEMBERS of the National Education Association of the United States, hold these truths to be self-evident—

- that the primary purpose of education in the United States is to develop citizens who will safeguard, strengthen, and improve the democracy obtained thru a representative government;
- that the achievement of effective democracy in all aspects of American life and the maintenance of our national ideals depend upon making acceptable educational opportunities available to all;
- that the quality of education reflects the ideals, motives, preparation, and conduct of the members of the teaching profession;
- that whoever chooses teaching as a career assumes the obligation to conduct himself in accordance with the ideals of the profession.

As a guide for the teaching profession, the members of the National Education Association have adopted this code of professional ethics. Since all teachers should be members of a united profession, the basic principles herein enumerated apply to all persons engaged in the professional aspects of education—elementary, secondary, and collegiate.

FIRST PRINCIPLE: The primary obligation of the teaching profession is to guide children, youth, and adults in the pursuit of knowledge and skills, to prepare them in the way of democracy, and to help them to become happy, useful, self-supporting citizens. The ultimate strength of the nation lies in the social responsibility, economic competence, and moral strength of the individual American.

In fulfilling the obligations of this first principle, the teacher will—

(1) Deal justly and impartially with students regardless of their physical, mental, emotional, political, economic, social, racial, or religious characteristics.

(2) Recognize the differences among students and seek to meet their individual needs.

(3) Encourage students to formulate and work for high individual goals in the development of their physical, intellectual, creative, and spiritual endowment.

(4) Aid students to develop an understanding and appreciation not only of the opportunities and benefits of American democracy but also of their obligations to it.

(5) Respect the right of every student to have confidential information about himself withheld except when its release is to authorized agencies or is required by law.

(6) Accept no remuneration for tutoring except in accordance with approved policies of the governing board.

SECOND PRINCIPLE: The members of the teaching profession share with parents the task of shaping each student's purposes and acts toward socially acceptable ends. The effectiveness of many methods of teaching is dependent upon cooperative relationships with the home.

In fulfilling the obligations of this second principle, the teacher will—

(1) Respect the basic responsibility of parents for their children.

(2) Seek to establish friendly and cooperative relationships with the home.

(3) Help to increase the student's confidence in his own home and avoid disparaging remarks which might undermine that confidence.

(4) Provide parents with information that will serve the best interests of their children, and be discreet with information received from parents.

(5) Keep parents informed about the progress of their children as interpreted in terms of the purposes of the school.

THIRD PRINCIPLE: The teaching profession occupies a position of public trust involving not only the individual teacher's personal conduct, but also the interaction of the school and the community. Education is most effective when these many relationships operate in a friendly, cooperative, and constructive manner.

In fulfilling the obligations of this third principle, the teacher will—

(1) Adhere to any reasonable pattern of behavior accepted by the community for professional persons.

(2) Perform the duties of citizenship and participate in community activities with due consideration for his obligations to his students, his family, and himself.

(3) Discuss controversial issues from an objective point of view, thereby keeping his class free from partisan opinions.

(4) Recognize that the public schools belong to the people of the community, encourage lay participation in shaping the purposes of the school, and strive to keep the public informed of the educational program which is being provided.

(5) Respect the community in which he is employed and be loyal to the school system, community, state, and nation.

(6) Work to improve education in the community and to strengthen the community's moral, spiritual, and intellectual life.

FOURTH PRINCIPLE: The members of the teaching profession have inescapable obligations with respect to employment. These obligations are nearly always shared employer-employee responsibilities based upon mutual respect and good faith.

In fulfilling the obligations of this fourth principle, the teacher will—

(1) Conduct professional business thru the proper channels.

(2) Refrain from discussing confidential and official information with unauthorized persons.

(3) Apply for employment on the basis of competence only, and avoid asking for a specific position known to be filled by another teacher.

(4) Seek employment in a professional manner, avoiding such practices as the indiscriminate distribution of applications.

(5) Refuse to accept a position when the vacancy has been created thru unprofessional activity or pending controversy over professional policy or the application of unjust personnel practices and procedures.

(6) Adhere to the conditions of a contract until service thereunder

has been performed, the contract has been terminated by mutual consent, or the contract has otherwise been legally terminated.

(7) Give and expect due notice before a change of position is to be made.

(8) Be fair in all recommendations that are given concerning the work of other teachers.

(9) Accept no compensation from producers of instructional supplies when one's recommendations affect the local purchase or use of such teaching aids.

(10) Engage in no gainful employment, outside of his contract, where the employment affects adversely his professional status or impairs his standing with students, associates, and the community.

(11) Cooperate in the development of school policies and assume one's professional obligations thereby incurred.

(12) Accept one's obligation to the employing board for maintaining a professional level of service.

FIFTH PRINCIPLE: The teaching profession is distinguished from many other occupations by the uniqueness and quality of the professional relationships among all teachers. Community support and respect are influenced by the standards of teachers and their attitudes toward teaching and other teachers.

In fulfilling the obligations of this fifth principle, the teacher will—

(1) Deal with other members of the profession in the same manner as he himself wishes to be treated.

(2) Stand by other teachers who have acted on his behalf and at his request.

(3) Speak constructively of other teachers, but report honestly to responsible persons in matters involving the welfare of students, the school system, and the profession.

(4) Maintain active membership in professional organizations and, thru participation, strive to attain the objectives that justify such organized groups.

(5) Seek to make professional growth continuous by such procedures as study, research, travel, conferences, and attendance at professional meetings.

(6) Make the teaching profession so attractive in ideals and practices that sincere and able young people will want to enter it.

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